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CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
NOTES OF THE WEEK	385	VERSE :		REVIEWS :	
LEADING ARTICLES :		To Idleness. By T. Sturge Moore . . .	394	The Mastery of the Pacific	399
Mr. Rhodes' Death and Peace Pro-		CORRESPONDENCE :		Of Lace	400
spects	388	Mr. Brodrick's Last Resource. By M. P. . .	396	A Fourteenth Century Book of Saints . .	401
The Education Bill	389	The Universities and the Civil Service		A Worthless Critic of Filippo Lippi . .	402
Irish Land Again	390	Examinations. By C. Grant Robert-	396	NOVELS	403
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES :		son		NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS	404
The Ethics of Resistance	392	The Education Problem. By Athelstan		SIX MONTHS OF AMERICAN LITERA-	
Don Quichote	393	Riley	397	TURE	405
A Successful Literary Man	395	The Training of Teachers. By Frank		SPANISH LITERATURE	406
The Absolute Life Assurance Company	395	J. Adkins	397		
		England and America. By Arthur			
		Johnston	398		

We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

There is one regret which Mr. Rhodes' death has spared us, probably just the one, and the only one, Mr. Rhodes himself would have held admissible in the case of death. There is no need to exclaim "he should have died hereafter". It is true the war is not over, it is true South Africa is not federated, it is true Cairo and the Cape have not joined hands. But none the less the ideal for which Mr. Rhodes lived he saw realised. English predominance in South Africa is assured, if yet challenged: and Mr. Rhodes lived to see it assured. Whatever estimate may be made of Mr. Rhodes' precise contribution to this result, whatever judgment passed on the methods he adopted, there are very few, among his enemies as well as his friends whether at home or abroad, who will care to deny that without Mr. Rhodes British supremacy would not be the fact it is now, and could not have been for a long time yet, if at all. A great sinner possibly, but at any rate a great Englishman.

However men may grudge Mr. Rhodes his greatness, the sense of loss will remain. His career till the day of the Jameson Raid rises to an almost unparalleled climax, and his accumulation of power must be put down rather to imagination than any peculiar quality of intellect. He was a diamond digger at the same time that he was an Oriel undergraduate; and it was chiefly the wonderful climate of South Africa that sent him first to his life's work there and that gave him against every doctor's opinion longer hours of life. They were "crowded" and, we may say, "glorious". From the first he was dominated with the idea of expansion to the north and it was the addition of a district to the Empire that gave Mr. Rhodes his first entrance into political life: he was elected member for the Barkly West division in 1880. But as he told Gordon, great ideas are no good without money to carry them out, and he built up his fortune concurrently with the advancement of his territorial schemes. When finally he amalgamated the diamond mines in '88 and won control of the diamond market of the world he was already, at the age of thirty-four, more than a millionaire.

From the date of his election, a few months after Majuba, began his long duel with Mr. Kruger and in

every future step Mr. Rhodes was a principal figure. In the annexation of Stellaland, the settlement of Bechuanaland and finally in the creation of Rhodesia, he was the force which compelled the Government to follow. In 1890, the year of the occupation of Mashonaland, he was elected prime minister at the Cape, and sworn a member of the Privy Council. In '95 came the Jameson Raid, and though with it the great career was broken, Mr. Rhodes' subsequent conference with the Matabele chiefs in the Matoppos Hills was an incident which regained the confidence of the people and seems, from his dying request, peculiarly to have touched Mr. Rhodes' own imagination.

The "Transvaal Government", represented by Mr. Schalk Burger and Mr. Reitz with some colleagues, on Sunday last obtained leave to pass through the British lines to consult with the Government of the late Orange Free State. They are now, in company with two of Lord Kitchener's emissaries, searching for Mr. Steyn. As we know from captured correspondence Mr. Schalk Burger with the support of General Botha urged upon Mr. Steyn the necessity of making peace nine months ago; and we know his reply. "Within two months" he wrote with unprophetic rashness "European complications will arise which will operate in our favour". The issue of the peace mission depends on whether Mr. Steyn is one of those prophets with whom "every failure adds a gem to deck the crown of hope" or a man of sense. In the Orange Colony, especially in its capital, the Pax Britannica is now to Mr. Steyn's knowledge "a going concern", and he must know that no good can come from his persistence in perambulating like a ghost the fringes of his late home; none the less his obstinacy, half impotent half heroic, may be incurable. In that case will Mr. Schalk Burger have the moral courage to act alone? All we know is that nine months ago he had not.

The news has been received on the Continent with a good deal of unconscious humour. It is argued that the Boers cannot be asking for peace after the crushing defeat of the British army under Methuen; that Lord Wolseley, at the instigation of the King and against the wishes of Mr. Chamberlain, is on his way to the Cape on a special mission to make peace before the Coronation; that the surrender of Lord Methuen puts a moral obligation on the British to restore their independence to the Boers. Mr. Kruger and his circle are credibly reported to have made out conditions, of which the chief are a qualified independence, full compensation for burned farms, and leave to bear arms. Dr. Leyds and Mr. Kruger are playing no doubt at

bluff and many of the Continental press at make-believe. The more serious papers, especially in Germany, are slowly if reluctantly coming to the conviction that in the end Boer surrender is certain, and perhaps after all the sooner it comes the better.

It is perhaps a valuable coincidence that the one Boer "force in being" has been broken up while the peace negotiations are opening. The last "drive"—a word which has its parallel in Xenophon's *ἐναγήμενον*—has not inflicted on General De la Rey any overmastering defeat but it has made him for the time a fugitive and robbed his force of its present powers of attack. The drive which started from the Lichtenburg blockhouse line seems to have been carried out with great dash: some of the troops covered no fewer than 80 miles in 24 hours. The whole result was the capture of 135 prisoners, three 15-pounders, two pom-poms and considerable numbers of waggons, mules and cattle. This is the first time that this Western district has been systematically swept of General De la Rey. The columns report for the last week 5 Boers killed, 95 prisoners, 63 surrenders, together with a certain amount of cattle, small-arms and ammunition. General Dixon's columns also came upon three abandoned Krupp guns. Lord Kitchener has sent some review of the whole position and shows himself satisfied with the progress. Some idea of how Lord Milner's work as well as Lord Kitchener's is progressing may be gathered from a statement made on Wednesday by the chairman of the Bank of Africa. He claimed that all the chief banking firms in South Africa were even now rapidly extending their business and profits.

The attitude of the Boer prisoners in India throws some light on what may happen when the return of the expatriated burghers has to be decided upon. On the approach of the hot season rendering camp life uncomfortable it was decided to remove the prisoners at Ahmadnagar, Umballa and other plain stations to cooler hill climates. The opportunities for escape and the difficulties of providing effective guard are great in the hills and the prisoners were therefore required to give their parole as a condition of the transfer. The greater part of them refused and endeavoured also to deter the minority who were willing to comply. As might be expected, the recusants were the Dutch Boers from the velt while the foreigners and the more educated burghers were willing to give the necessary pledge. The arrangement was entirely for the prisoners' own convenience and the ground of refusal was a reluctance to humble themselves for the sake of their comfort. The action may indicate fine qualities though it is perilously like mere obstinacy. Perhaps like Padgett M.P., they may change their views when May comes in with the dust storms.

Canada, Australia and New Zealand are busy organising new contingents for service in South Africa. The persistence of these colonies in identifying themselves with the Imperial cause is a proof of devotion more remarkable even than their first efforts, and encourages the highest hopes that some scheme of Imperial relations more businesslike than those which now obtain may result from the Colonial Conferences to be held in London this summer. As New Zealand has been the most enthusiastic contributor to the colonial forces in the field, so her Prime Minister, Mr. Seddon, is easily first in his eagerness to promote the cause of Imperial solidarity. His programme is comprehensive, and includes preferential tariffs, Imperial reserves, the strengthening of the Australasian squadron, and triennial meetings between leading Imperial and colonial statesmen. Mr. Seddon's attitude is what we should expect that of other colonial premiers to be, in view of the attitude of the people they represent. Sir Wilfrid Laurier's unwillingness to consider any project of Imperial defence is intelligible only on the ground that he has misapprehended the ideas which have been advanced on the subject. We should not have been surprised if his free-trade proclivities—which he has not been able to gratify in Canada as Premier—were a difficulty in the way of tariff modifications, but that he should deprecate the

discussion of defence is astonishing and may prove unfortunate for himself.

We deplored, at the time, Mr. Balfour's good-natured indiscretion in allowing Mr. Henry Norman to lure him into correspondence about General Buller and Spion Kop. The members of the Cecil family seem just now to be falling very easy preys to the interviewer. Mr. Balfour and Lord Cranborne have both come to grief: we hope Lord Salisbury's secretaries will exercise sleepless vigilance on his account, and push off anyone who tries to turn him to boom purposes. The result of the ludicrous "Dear Mr. Balfour" and "Dear Mr. Norman" series of letters is now to be seen. Sir Redvers Buller has joined in, and what was merely ridiculous has become most unpleasant. Sir Redvers requests the publication of the Spion Kop despatch "without manipulation"; and Mr. Balfour, with engaging candour, replies that the only "manipulation" resorted to was "for the purpose of, if possible sparing your feelings and maintaining your military reputation". Altogether it is a pretty kettle of fish. Has Mr. Balfour never suffered before by interesting himself in the concerns of the press? We wish Mr. Norman had "tried it on" with Mr. Chamberlain or Sir Michael Hicks Beach.

Nowhere has the Anglo-Japanese agreement and its sequel caused less excitement than in England, and nowhere more than in France. There is an uneasy feeling among many Frenchmen that Manchuria is utterly remote from French interests while it is the only place where a serious national quarrel may arise. Should this happen, France would be compelled by the express conditions of the Franco-Russian note to fight for her ally over a matter with which she had no intimate concern. M. Delcassé was less happy than usual in his reply to M. Cochin on this aspect of the question; he made no attempt to give direct explanation and his expansive assurances were not quite successful in obscuring the issue. But the point is not essential. There is a general desire in West and East to assure the formal integrity of the Chinese Empire; not even Russia wishes to fight and not even Britain is suspected of wanting to fight.

The parade of Parliament is over, and Ministers have earned what reputation there is to be got from the first reading of the larger measures. But there seldom was a time when prospects of effective legislation were less hopeful. The London Water Bill alone has passed a second reading—it has been referred to a joint committee of the two Houses and there is a chance that it may be passed without serious delay. There remain the Education Bill, the Licensing Bill, the Irish Land Purchase Bill. The qualified geniality of the reception of these Bills is no measure of the quality of the opposition that is gathering. Ministers are mostly allowed a peaceful parade in the early stages of the session. While they have been busy the Opposition has been husbanding its keenness and its animosity which are apt to grow proportionately with the weariness of Governments and the age of the session. But before discussion comes on at all an unusually thorny Budget debate has to be faced and the continuous emergence of important South African business must be expected. Further to block the way the least popular of Mr. Balfour's Procedure rules remain, a cause of tedium to the public, of indignation to the Opposition.

It would not be at all surprising if the introduction of the Education Bill, which Mr. Balfour took charge of last Monday, had more interest for persons of a sporting than for those of an educational turn of mind. In the light of other Bills the odds on its passing acquire a speculative attraction more lively than any its provisions possibly can have for sceptical and twice sold educational enthusiasts. However, the Bill as it stands is not a small one; it is no stop-gap fraud. Running very much on the lines anticipated, it goes to the root of the matter by establishing one authority, the county or town council acting through a committee, for primary secondary and technical schools within the

focal area. School-Boards disappear, and denominational and undenominational schools alike come under the local authority. The religious difficulty remains, no settlement being attempted in this Bill. Denominational schools are to be maintained out of rates, the local authority to have the right to appoint a minority of the school managers. As the Bill stands now, the county councils are only given the right to take over primary education from the School-Boards; they are not directed to do so.

London is exempted from the operation of the Bill. This was probably unavoidable; though it is certainly curious that it is always London that has to wait. London in point of regard from Government and Legislature—at any rate when the Conservatives are in office—seems to be in exactly the opposite case to Paris. The London School-Board will be chuckling over its year of reprieve. It is certainly very lucky, for tried on merits it would be one of the earliest to pay the supreme penalty. As a piece of machinery it has worked execrably. It makes much noise, much fuss, with very small results—except in statistics. The grand outcome of the London School-Board is sham education; a fact which is rapidly being borne in upon everybody except members of “the Board” themselves. Sir John Gorst has seen it and has not been afraid to say so. It is a great pity that Sir John did not introduce this Bill. In his singularly lucid words the scheme would have been far more intelligible and its provisions more readily grasped than ever Mr. Balfour was able to make them. Mr. Balfour was very far below his best, or indeed his usual, form on Monday; when, to put it frankly, he was often simply unintelligible. It is an absurd state of things when political and personal considerations oust from his own title-rôle one not only competent to fill it but absolutely the only man who is competent to fill it. Sir John Gorst must be more, or less, than human if he has not smiled a bitter smile over some of Mr. Balfour’s difficulties.

The first notes of the controversy over the Bill have quickly risen. Old familiar points are of course taken by societies like the National Education Association and the National Council of the Evangelical Free Churches; and they purpose uncompromising opposition. They object to the authority as non-representative and to the rate maintenance of denominational schools. A fear expressed by Mr. Macnamara, that the local authority might set the standard of education rather than Whitehall, is countered by the assertion of the National Education Association that they will be subjected to the absolute control of the Board of Education. It is interesting to hear from Mr. Carvell Williams that in his circle suggestions of a compromise have been made which he, however, ruthlessly discourages. The standing committee of the National Society, and Professor Oliver Lodge, the Principal of the University of Birmingham, represent opinion that accepts the Bill, with a reservation against its optional character. Professor Lodge says he had previously drafted a Bill the same in its essential features. This is valuable because he thinks of the Bill as an education scheme and is not immersed in the religious controversy. He expresses a more favourable opinion on the provisions bearing on this matter than the National Society Committee. The latter would approve of religious teaching in all schools instead of the continuance of exclusive denominational and non-denominational schools, and this view is in our opinion the right one.

Mr. Wyndham’s Land Purchase Bill at any rate excels its many predecessors in the geniality of its reception, and there has been an altogether unusual willingness to concentrate attention on its essential excellences. Mr. Wyndham’s own perspicuity and thoroughness have done this. Perhaps also the question and its difficulties are now better understood than in 1891, when only about three men in the House, of whom Mr. Maurice Healy was one, were said to grasp the nature of the problem. Members have at least reached the Socratic plane of knowledge: they know that they

don’t know and are willing to grant that the English formulæ cannot be applied to the solution of Irish problems. The past is acknowledged a failure; litigation has accumulated till the machines are clogged and the chief cause has been appeals against the decisions of the rent fixing courts which were to have made all things plain. The rent fixing was a failure, so also were the arrangements for purchase. As proved by Mr. Wyndham’s startling figures, the number of landowners able or willing to sell has been nearly exhausted. The result is not surprising, since land stock has fallen from 117 to 94; but the point is that the cardinal grievance remains untouched: they who rent their holding pay a larger amount yearly than they who are purchasing by instalments.

Compulsory Purchase, a phrase that advertises a notion repellent to a sense of justice, could alone dissipate this anomaly entirely. But Mr. Wyndham’s system is by many degrees the best yet devised for inducing voluntary sale. Under this scheme the Land Commission may take over into their own hands the whole of a man’s estate, administer it themselves and be solely responsible for its distribution among the several occupiers. The landowner will be paid in gold, not in land stock, and the difference—already represented by the advocator of compulsory purchase as a dole to the landowner—will fall on the taxes. The advantage of the system is that it will clear away the innumerable legal “businesses” which have caused continuous delay, irritation and expense between the two parties. Its final success as a general cure for discontent depends solely on one question of which the answer is beyond prophecy or discussion. Will a sufficient number of landowners be made able and willing to sell? Mr. Wyndham, who has better means of knowing than anyone else, thinks they will. One provision has been universally approved; it was keenly supported even by Mr. T. W. Russell. A “congested district” is not this or that locality more or less arbitrarily picked out, but any place in which certain conditions prevail. Here again is Mr. Wyndham’s mark of sensible simplification.

“As I was saying when I was interrupted, Sir” is the correct up-to-date retort to political opponents who describe us to our faces as “damned liars” and the like. Therefore Colonel Kenyon Slaney M.P. has no need to be ruffled by Mr. Labouchère’s allusion to him as “an excited maniac”—“excited politician” by the way would have been more gentlemanly, and reminiscent, too, of Colonel Saunderson’s historic withdrawal. “I am as cool as a cucumber”, remarked Mr. Chamberlain once when everybody else was at a white heat on his account. Colonel Kenyon Slaney has not this rare gift, but his anger at the hints of jobbery and corruption against officers who cannot defend themselves does him credit. The brood of rumours in regard to this and that officer or official, which has sprung out of the contracts affair, is repulsive, we hope, to an English gentleman. We cannot understand the apparent eagerness of some folk to be present at and even have a hand in the accouchement of such ugly things.

It would be wise of the Liberal Party if they could see their way to the adoption of the advice proffered by Mr. Herbert Gladstone at Leeds. What was lacking, he said, was a sense of humour, and taking his own advice he described himself as “valet” to his party, spending a peripatetic existence between the different tabernacles. But if Mr. Gladstone is serious in his recommendation of humour, he is the less justified in his whole-hearted adherence to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. It is in the other tabernacle that the humour dwells. Nevertheless it is refreshing to find someone with enthusiasm for his leader, and Mr. Gladstone showed some logical strength by maintaining his firm adherence to the one remaining conviction of the older Liberal Party, the necessity of Home Rule as a cure for Irish disloyalty.

In the Annual Statement for 1901-2 of the General Council of the Bar there is some criticism of the

Supreme Court of Judicature (Appeals) Bill which will be worth noting if and whenever that measure comes on in the House; and nothing has been done in respect of it at least during the present session. Its object is to take certain appeals from the Appeal Court and transfer them to a Divisional Court; but the Council would prefer the strengthening of the Court of Appeal itself by adding another branch. By the institution during the sittings just ended of a permanent Divisional Court of three Judges this intermediate class of appeal court has been greatly improved. But if the plan of the Bill were adopted, then the increase of work put on this Court would upset the ordinary work of the Judges of first instance from whom the Divisional Court Judges are drawn, and it would become necessary to appoint more Judges, as it would indeed if another branch of the Appeal Court were created. There is no doubt this latter would be the best course, and Acts such as the Workmen's Compensation Act ought not to be left to the final interpretation of a Divisional Court without appeal, as is proposed by the Bill.

If the English people do not take Good Friday ideally, they at least take it in a less offensive way than they do some other holy days. The closed places of nonconformist worship and the prominence of mere holiday-making compared with the observation of a sacred anniversary might still leave a stranger with some doubts whether England were a Christian country. Still things are better than they were. Even the nonconformist chapels are not all closed now, while the Anglican clergy certainly do all in their power to bring home to Churchmen, and indeed to the whole people, what Good Friday means. That is a singular instance of conscientious perversity which in the past led many people, and possibly some to-day, to think a sober keeping of Good Friday as of the smallest account compared with a severe and solemn Sunday. Even the natural man is open to the appeal of the tremendous scene of Calvary, and one would think the day which commemorates it must impose an instinctive restraint on the Christian far more than any other day in the year.

A Royal Proclamation was issued on Wednesday appointing 27 June the day of the Coronation, and 28 June the day of the progress through London, as bank and public holidays. It is well that the King himself should be the giver; the holidays are thus made universal and as it were an integral part of the national ceremony. What Froissart said of the English people may still be true: "*Ils s'amusement tristement selon le coutume de leur pays*", but they have always had a very schoolboy enjoyment in a whole holiday and the prospect of it: and after a holiday they next enjoy a procession. To some extent business must suffer, as all important work will be intermitted for at least four days, but by this early notice of the arrangements any serious dislocation will be quite avoided, and the most persistent business man may allow himself to relax.

The stock markets have been somewhat more animated during the past week although the settlement which has just been concluded and the near approach of the Easter holidays have acted as a check on new business. The latest development in South Africa towards peace negotiations were favourably regarded, and coupled with the successful operations against De la Rey combined to raise prices in the mining market, quotations having retained their strength in spite of the news of the death of Mr. Cecil Rhodes; it is understood that arrangements exist which will obviate the necessity to sell any large blocks of shares of Mr. Rhodes' holding and no considerable set-back is therefore anticipated from this cause. The Funds have been stronger during the week and English railway stocks have also been more active with an upward movement. Colonial stocks have been steady with however very little business and American rails have been neglected. The remaining markets have been without special feature. Consols 94 $\frac{1}{8}$. Bank rate 3 per cent. (6 February, 1902).

MR. RHODES' DEATH AND PEACE PROSPECTS.

THACKERAY in speaking of the death of Swift used a fine exaggeration: in thinking of his death, he wrote, one thinks of an empire falling. The sentiment will be that of many when they heard of the death of Mr. Rhodes. We are all thinking of the fall of an empire builder, and if an epitaph is wanted it might be said of him as of another builder, "*Si monumentum requiris circumspecte*." If you seek a monument look at the map. Even when he was spending his Oxford vacation in South Africa, seeking both health and scope for energy, the idea of imperial expansion possessed him. There was no great novelty in his schemes nor great originality in his manner of developing them, but it is probable that without him the Germans and Dutch between them would have put up an impassable barrier to the growth of Cape Colony to the North. The keynote of his success was imagination and his career is one which has appealed to the imagination of the people of all countries. Beyond question he will be one of the great men of history: his share in the Jameson raid, his meddling with party politics will be forgotten and he will be remembered as the man whose personal inspiration did more than any other man of his time to give the British Government as well as people the impulse of imperial dreams.

At his career the whole world wonders. What of the man? There were faults in the strata. He had to do big things suddenly; and if we apply the parochial norm, much that he did in connexion with Dr. Jameson, with Mr. Parnell and others will not pass the moral test. But the formulæ of history are other than of the parish. After he had given that £5,000 to the Liberal Party he wrote "It would be an awful thing to give my money to breaking up the empire". Thoughts of empire were the life of him; his mind was alive with giant schemes, and he was one of those rare characters who regarded money solely as a means to greater things. His ignorance of details was astounding and he made his money because he was never a man of business. He has often enough been described as a taciturn man but in later years at least his enthusiasm gave him an inspiration of rough eloquence which overcame all hostility both in business and in private. One of his Oxford hosts who was asked what he thought of Mr. Rhodes, could only repeat: He is a poet, he is a poet. The subject under discussion had been Church Disestablishment and Mr. Rhodes had carried away even the Oriel Common Room by the future he had drawn of village life in England, made fresh and clean by the dependence on the Church at the centre. In one sense at least he was a poet, in the true sense of the word, a maker, and his poem, the thing he made, was empire.

In his heyday he compelled the Government to follow his lead. At the time of his death the reins had passed, as he wished them to pass, from his hands. Though no one will fill his place at the moment, his death alters no prospect in South Africa. Mr. Steyn and Mr. Schalk Burger now in consultation will be neither more nor less inclined to peace. Their dealings were no longer with Mr. Rhodes, but the British Government. It is not the first time the advent of the South African winter has turned the thoughts of the Boer leaders towards peace; and any anticipation of the results of this proceeding must be tempered with the remembrance of what took place a year ago. On that occasion General Louis Botha met Lord Kitchener, with the result that certain definite terms, which were understood to be acceptable to the Boer leader, were offered by the English Government only to be rejected. In view of Lord Kitchener's experience common prudence would suggest that any proposals for the termination of hostilities which may come from the Boer leaders should be committed to writing and accompanied by some reasonable assurance that all the leaders of the scattered commandos in the field are assenting parties to the document. But assuming that these elementary precautions are duly observed, and that the offer made by the Boer leaders is genuine, what real prospect is there that the Boers will so modify

their pretensions as to put forward any proposals which the Government, the nation, and the Empire can accept at this eleventh hour of the war? We assume that the Boer leaders will not put forward again any such preposterous claims as the removal of Lord Milner and the recognition of the Cape rebels as regular belligerents. Nevertheless the Government is again confronted by the insidious temptation of granting conditions, which seemingly innocent would yet hang like a millstone round the neck of the future British administration of the new colonies, and possibly wreck the attainment of administrative unity in South Africa—that is, the attainment of the one object which is commensurate with the sacrifices incurred by England and the Empire. When the war broke out we underrated the fighting power of the enemy, and we suffered for our mistake; to underestimate the force of resistance which will be encountered by the British administration after hostilities have ceased is an error which would be accompanied by far more serious results. When the negotiations with Botha had failed, and the precise terms of the offer made by the British Government through Lord Kitchener had been published, the SATURDAY REVIEW, in the corresponding week of a year ago, expressed the opinion that a real and serious danger had been escaped. "The Boer will submit cheerfully", we then wrote, "to a stern and just rule; he will chafe if he is allowed to retain any element of political or social freedom which can be utilised for the cultivation of Boer nationality. Therefore we are well content that the Government has escaped the deadly peril of granting terms which they would not have been able to carry out to the letter, and which, therefore, would have given an excuse to the Boers for renewed political agitation. And it is practically certain that some of the conditions actually offered would have afforded such opportunities". It will be useful to recall some of these conditions, and the objections to them.

(1) The admission of the Dutch language to equality with the English. The Boer vernacular is not the Dutch of Holland but the "Taal". If the Boers are to learn an official language they may just as well learn English as Dutch. As a matter of fact, however, the use of English as the official language would not involve any real inconvenience to the Boers; since there are few Boers who cannot speak English well enough for practical purposes. On the other hand the Taal is a bastard patois which has no literature and no literary associations, while the acquisition of a common language, and the use of a common literature, would prove a potent factor in effecting the fusion of the two races. To fail to utilise this instrument of racial amalgamation would be altogether unjustifiable in view of the paramount necessity of solving the nationality question, and the difficulties which otherwise attend its solution. (2) Permission to retain military rifles on the ground that they are required for defence against the natives. To allow the Boers to retain their rifles, even under restrictions such as are imposed upon the natives, would inevitably increase the risk of an armed revolt in the future. The plea on which the concession is urged is baseless: since, in the first place, merely to allow the Boers to protect themselves in this manner against the natives would at once introduce what experience has shown to be the most fertile source of disturbance in South Africa, and in the second, the suggestion that the British administration will be unable to protect the lives and property of all its subjects is one which ought to be instantly repudiated. (3) Any promise of a definite share in representative institutions, or of the grant of "responsible government" within a given time, might—and probably would—prove a grave source of embarrassment to the new administration. Many unforeseen circumstances may arise, which would make it impossible to keep to the letter of the bargain, although the spirit of the general promise to grant self-government to the new colonies as soon as possible was being honourably observed in other respects: and this failure to observe the letter of the promise would be used as a pretext for political agitation.

In plain words a task of profound difficulty awaits us

in South Africa, and we cannot afford to concede a single point. In this connexion we commend the views of Sir George Goldie to our readers. To him the language question is a "vital point" in the negotiations: since he holds that to put Dutch on an equality with English would be to "sacrifice the happiness of countless generations to sentimentalism". The utmost clemency that can be extended to the Cape rebels without revolting the feelings of the loyalists is that "every rebel who has borne arms against his Majesty's Government shall be disfranchised for life"; while as to the force of resistance which will be presented by the Dutch population in South Africa, Sir George Goldie points out that none of the Boers whom he has met can realise that they have been "beaten". "Over-weighted by numbers" is the way they put it. This is perfectly true. The individual Boer prisoner, when questioned on the subject, will attribute his humiliating position to the blunders of his leaders, the treachery of the natives, or to mere bad luck; but he cannot bring himself to recognise that he has been beaten in fair fight.

Apart from the original objections based upon the nature of the terms themselves, the protraction of the war affords a further obstacle to the offer of these or any such conditions to the Boers. The attitude of the Boers themselves and the attitude of our Continental neighbours and the United States of America make it imperative that no terms should be granted which can by any possible process of distortion be twisted into an admission on the part of England that she has not been able to achieve all that she desired by force of arms. When the news of the arrival of the Boer peace mission at Pretoria reached the Continent, an interpretation discreditable to this country was at once placed upon the event. To those who know the conditions under which German journalists work, and the aloofness of the more instructed of the German public from the press of their country, there is nothing very surprising in the fact that the negotiations should have been attributed almost universally to the supposed unfavourable position of Lord Kitchener, and not to the joint effect of the approach of winter and the successive and continuous losses sustained by the Boers. But in Paris things are different; and it is impossible not to realise how deep is the misunderstanding of the Continent, when we find the "Temps" writing in this fashion. "The Boers are, of course, the weaker party. They can be crushed, we admit. But they can revenge themselves by dragging their conquerors into a bottomless abyss of trouble, suffering, and ruin". In the face of this misunderstanding we must so act as to show the world that the aims of the British Empire are precisely what they were three years ago; but that the two and a half years of vain resistance that have now passed have changed the means by which those aims can be attained. That is all. And since these aims are in harmony with the progress of civilisation, a prolonged resistance to their attainment can only recoil upon the misguided people by whom that resistance is maintained.

There is one matter in which a concession might perhaps be justified. It may be argued that as the object of the proclamation taking effect upon 15 September, 1901, was to end the war, its penalties should not now be allowed to stand in the way of peace. The recent behaviour of De la Rey, and the appreciation shown in this country of the gallantry of De Wet and Louis Botha, would make it more possible to adopt a generous view of the position of the Boer leaders in the field. On the other hand the after effects of any failure to make good the nation's word must be duly weighed. Apart from this matter, and the obvious necessity for making it perfectly plain to the Boers that the new administration will accept the entire responsibility of restoring the burghers to their farms, the Government can accept no proposals other than an offer of absolute and unqualified surrender.

THE EDUCATION BILL.

THE impression produced by Mr. Balfour's exposition of the Education Bill is one of nearly equal satisfaction and disappointment. It is satisfactory because

it shows that the Government intends to deal with the subject in no niggardly spirit and on a large plan; it is disappointing to us because in several important respects we should have liked to see specific proposals quite different from what they actually are. We are at least to have elementary, secondary, and technical education under the control of the great representative municipalities, County or Borough, which is a great step in the natural process of national growth in other matters besides education. Boards ad hoc are being gradually eliminated in every direction. The history of School Boards has shown that they are impossible as education authorities. The electors do not understand education nor do the people who seek their votes for the most part understand it any more. The questions on which elections turn are not educational but political, local, personal or so-called religious—differences magnified with the object of giving parties pretexts for something to fight about. Elementary education has suffered from these things, and they have made it impossible for the School Boards, if they were charged with co-ordinating the three branches of elementary, secondary, and technical education to start, as the new authority will start, free from a compromising past. The latter indeed has the advantage of being already known as a real educational authority. Its exact constitution for the purposes of the new Bill is not yet apparent, but the committee of the municipalities is intended to be composed of persons whose only pretensions to be there at all must be that they know something of education. We may assume too that its numbers will not be so absurdly large as they are on the School Boards, whereby these bodies become much more adapted for pragmatical disputes and farcical quarrellings about trifles than for serious work. As to the importance of the co-ordination of educational work, that is at length as definitely recognised as it is that the bodies who already possess two branches of it must inevitably be entrusted with the third, and that the division cannot be allowed to remain. Take for example the case of the better education of teachers, the subject of one of the best passages in Mr. Balfour's speech. Is not the proper training of teachers for the elementary schools a matter of secondary or we might say technical education? It would be as absurd to entrust it to a body having charge of elementary education alone as it would be to entrust it to a body that had nothing to do with elementary education. This question of teachers is one of the most serious in the whole range of educational questions, and though Mr. Balfour did not show how the Bill will help in its solution we take it that its connexion with the Bill turns on the importance of centralising educational authority in the hands of those who will survey each branch in connexion with the other as a whole system.

Unfortunately, as the Bill now stands, this essential plan of a sole authority for education is permissive merely. In this there is a painful air of the Government not having the courage of its convictions. The endeavour to throw the responsibility of actualising the plan on the municipalities was as naturally cheered with taunting cheers by the Opposition who take the School Board side of the controversy, as it was deplored by Sir Richard Jebb from the point of view of an educationist. It would be impossible to improve on Sir Richard Jebb's quotation from Dr. Johnson that "when a man is wholly wrong it is from want of sense; but when he is half wrong it may be from want of spirit" as applied to the Government's attitude. We have not his scruples in applying the second part of the maxim to the Government: and we thoroughly agree with him that this was a case in which the bolder and simpler course would also have been the wiser. The Government should settle the question once for all in Parliament, while they are about it, on educational grounds, and not send it to be fought out in the country embarrassed by all kinds of irrelevant issues. It is plain enough that the Bill, if it were at once adopted by municipalities, is not a settlement of the contentions between the denominational and the State schools, but at any rate the Government might secure the most essential portion of their Bill from the strife of sectarian squabbles which will start whenever the Bill is passed. They can control fate in Parliament: they will become the sport of cir-

cumstances in the country. We wonder they can view the prospect with equanimity, and comfort themselves with analogies from the long drawn history of the establishment of the compulsory clauses.

If the Government alter this optional provision in their Bill, they will have the right to claim that they have established the system of education on an unassailable basis from the point of view of the educationist. That much is clear; whatever effect it may have on the relations of the various contending religious and secularist parties. And this could not have been done without placing denominational schools in the same position as regards maintenance with the State schools. That is a foregone conclusion when an unprejudiced educationist considers the question. But the Government's method of dealing with the religious difficulty is not the best means of securing conditions of justice between all the parties to the religious controversy. As we have said the Bill leaves open all the old points of conflict between denominational and undenominational schools. The rivalry will be intensified by that provision of the Bill which removes all restrictions upon the right to build schools to be supported by the rates. We cannot see how it can work without increasing the animosities of parties and placing them in a more antagonistic position to each other than ever. The Government have imposed on the Education Board at Whitehall a most difficult duty of acting as arbiter: and we are afraid it will be able to do very little towards making peace between the parties. It must also be confessed that, speaking from the narrower point of view of a religious community while regretting the fact from a higher standpoint of the true interests of religion, it gives us a certain party advantage which we would rather not be in the position to take. With the professed object of the Government, that all parents should be enabled to obtain for their children the religious education they desire, we have the liveliest sympathy, but their plan for attaining that object tends to the increase of the rivalry between one class of schools and another, and it is likely to lead to pecuniary waste. We should have preferred that all schools had been turned into State schools, with liberty for the teachers of all religious parties to give their instruction to the children of their own adherents. Under the Bill, Church children in undenominational schools are still shut off from the teaching of the Church: while in denominational schools, though they are to be maintained out of public funds, there can be no teaching of children of parents belonging to other denominations. The Bill establishes a negative kind of equality. What one cannot do another cannot do. But that will only incite each party to strive for positive advantages over the other. The optional clauses and those relating to religious instruction are the great defects of the Bill which will still leave the education question open.

IRISH LAND AGAIN.

THE bill for the extension of land purchase on voluntary lines, introduced by Mr. Wyndham on the 25th, has been awaited in Ireland with intense interest. The time has passed for any discussion of the abstract merits of the purchase policy: it may be admitted that it hastens the disafforesting of Ireland, and that it is gradually removing some elements of the population whose loss will be felt later on. But this is not an excessive price to pay for a method that is putting an end to the land war which has existed in one form or another practically for three hundred years, since the Elizabethan confiscations began. We have for thirty-two years been trying to amend the faults in the Irish land system, and the successive Land Acts have brought about a situation which does not satisfy the tenants while it rightly exasperates the landlords. At present there is a very expensive system of rent-fixing by State tribunals which, while it has removed all possibility of rack-renting, has failed to produce general confidence. The Fry Commission proved many faults in the administration of the system. The sub-commissioners are not always agricultural experts, and their task is to fix a "fair rent"—a mysterious abstraction which very few of

them define in the same way. As the decisions are subjected to revision every fifteen years, they leave no sense of security. The average tenant does not try to improve his holding (he sometimes wilfully deteriorates the land) lest at the next assessment his rent should be raised. The landlord has lost by law all possibility of performing any of the functions which justify his economic existence: he is a mere rent-charger on his own property, and his charge fluctuates in value according to the idiosyncrasies of the valuers. He is aggrieved because the State so often arbitrarily cuts down his rents: the tenant remains unplaced in the belief that the land is his by ancestral right and that the landlord represents English spoliation. Some years ago the plan of campaign was put into force in good faith, so to say, by Munster tenants descended from Cromwellian troopers against the representative of an old Keltic house which has held some of its Munster property continuously for ten centuries, and the movement was defended as a legitimate attack on "the English garrison"! With such beliefs established among the farmers, it is not easy for the Land Commission to satisfy them. One of the worst signs of the prevailing uncertainty is that the farmers' spokesmen look with distrust in many cases on the industrial improvement for which Mr. Horace Plunkett is working so steadily: they fear that prosperity will mean increased rents, and they have not realised that now, when no landlord may of his own accord raise rents, it is perfectly certain that any such increase will fall below the enhancement of prices. In short, they do not trust the system.

State-aided purchase, timidly inaugurated in the case of Church tenants in 1869, slightly extended in 1870, placed on a sound basis in 1885, greatly extended in 1891, is the best solvent that has been discovered. It will not, we believe, have the far-reaching political effects that some predict: it will not change a farmer's political creed. Down farmers will remain Unionists, Cork farmers Home-rulers. But it must tend against the wilder revolutionary ideas which used to attract the tenant-at-will. Peasant proprietors will have a stronger interest in electing businesslike County Councils, though they are not likely to send better men to Westminster. That facilities for purchase needed to be extended will hardly be denied by anyone who approves the method. The Land Commission, in the first place, has been extremely cautious, and has in several instances refused to sanction a bargain voluntarily made by landlord and tenant where the security was supposed to be doubtful. In other cases it has cut down the price agreed upon. Secondly, the expenses of proving title are in many cases prohibitive to the landlords. The Irish gentry have not been very exact in keeping records, and in one fairly typical case of which we know a landlord with estates in three adjoining counties cannot sell a single farm to the occupier until an investigation of nearly two centuries of rural history has been made at his expense. Of course there is clear title in the case of landowners who bought under the Encumbered Estates Court (a class whose numerous black sheep have brought under suspicion the whole body of landlords, but which, from a strictly legal aspect, has been more unjustly treated than any other under the Land Acts). But the chief impediment in the landlords' way is the amazingly complicated system of land tenure, and the reckless manner in which in better days properties were saddled with jointures and family charges. Very few of "the old stock" have unencumbered estates, and sale to tenants at seventeen years purchase at this moment, with simultaneous clearing off of charges, would often reduce a landlord's income by quite sixty per cent. Mr. Russell's contention that the landlord also gets rid of the small commission he paid to his agent gives inadequate consolation.

Those who have followed our argument will see some of the objections to the compulsory sale which Mr. Russell has advocated so strenuously. His programme presents many fascinations to the tenant, and Parliament after "swearing she would ne'er consent" has consented to so many of the tenants' demands that Irishmen are slow to believe in the impracticability of any proposed concession. It is of course very exasperating, as Mr. Russell says, to a tenant who is paying in perpetuity a

pound in rent to see his neighbour paying 13s. 4d. a year in purchase money for fifty years. Again, the Ulster farmers who follow Mr. Russell have gained far less by the Land Acts than their southern fellows, and in consequence are discontented. They already possessed the "Ulster custom", and were as a rule rented at low rates. The Acts have not greatly reduced their rents, and have given the landlord a right of pre-emption which he practically did not possess. It is natural that Mr. Russell should gather a following, but we should say that his deliberate acceptance of an alliance on the land question with the United Irish League will go far to destroy his influence in the North. For Mr. Russell and the Nationalists stand together in Parliament for the same idea, and outside Ulster that idea is being extended by boycotting and intimidation, and is being avowedly used as a weapon against the Loyalists of the South and West. Mr. Russell must write a far better book than "Ireland and the Empire", and must select controversial methods other than abuse of His Majesty's Judges and ill-mannered slanders on the Bar, if he wishes to persuade Ulstermen to play Mr. William O'Brien's game.

The arguments in his book and speeches seem in some cases to be a little hasty. If, as he says, no one in Ireland has any confidence in the Land Commission, it is a little strange to hand over to that body the valuation for sale of every property in Ireland. His special appeal to the landlords, resting on the idea that at the third revision of rents they will be swept out of existence, consorts oddly with his assertion that the Land Commission has done systematic injustice to the tenants. But our objections to compulsory purchase would stand if Mr. Russell were a saner advocate. It means the forcible elimination at one blow of a class which owes its unpopularity chiefly to its identification with Unionism. There is no reason to think that it would turn the occupiers into Unionists: Mr. Redmond and his friends do not think it would; for they urge the banishment of landlords as the first step to separation. It would practically make the State the landlord of all Ireland, and we do not quite see what the State could do in the face of a new and universal "plan of campaign". Further, we cannot believe that it would be possible to stop the growth of a new landlord system infinitely worse than the old. Mr. Russell talks glibly of preventing the alienation of land in the future, of fixing the thriftless and impecunious peasant on the land and forbidding him to mortgage his holding to the strong farmer or the gombeen man. It is hard enough to restrict the alienation of land in the Punjab: can anyone devise an effectual means of restriction in a European country where the law of bankruptcy exists?

There are other points which will suggest themselves to any close observer of Ireland. Mr. Russell talks as if we had to deal with a recognised body of occupying tenants. But he knows that all through the West the right of occupancy to many farms is at this moment a matter of dispute. The League is endeavouring to oust hundreds of tenants whom it considers "grabbers". Would these men's position be accepted by their rivals if they bought their farms? Would the large graziers holding on "eleven months" tenure be allowed to buy? If only tenants who held under the Acts were included, the hardest point in the land question would remain untouched. And there is another consideration perhaps more cogent than these: the labourers will get no benefit from any plan of universal purchase, and the labourers form a large class, gradually becoming articulate (though their champion was refused a hearing at the recent "National Convention"), and gradually recognising that the movement which has done so much for farmers has gained them nothing. They will lose greatly by the expatriation of their best employers: they will remain landless, and at the mercy of the penurious small farmer.

We have not thought it necessary to enlarge on the absurdity of any cut and dried scheme which pretends to apply alike to the miserable cottier-holdings of the Atlantic seaboard, the pasture-lands of Meath, the rich agricultural farms of Tipperary and Limerick. The conditions of farming obviously differ widely in different parts of Ireland. Nor have we dwelt on the

financial aspects of any plan of universal compulsory purchase. In view of the present situation it has been necessary to confine ourselves to what is, after all, only one side of the Irish question. Sir William Hunter's words on Bengal have a wider application: in Ireland as in India "the remedy for a congested peasant population does not reside in land laws, but in railways, facilities for migration and emigration", (of the latter indeed we have too many) "new industries and employments of the people apart from their single resource—the land". The misdeeds of the eighteenth century, when English merchants ruined the nascent Irish industries, have committed us to-day to the *ύστερον πρότερον*. That being so, Mr. Wyndham's bill must be welcomed as a careful and sober advance towards the settlement of the land question. There are one or two features which will probably require to be amended: we doubt whether either landlord or tenant will see fairness in the provision that when one party applies for a revision of rent, the other may apply to fix a price for sale, and that in this event the first party shall (practically) be penalised for refusing the bargain. Such a clause may work substantial injustice when the Land Commission fixes a low price. But this is a minor point. The bill as a whole was very fairly described by Mr. Russell as "in the main giving no relief to the landlords which will not react in favour of the tenants". It will enable many landlords to sell who could not now do so: it gives them hard cash instead of depreciated land-stock, it encourages them to settle down after sale as gentlemen farmers (an occupation which in Ireland can be made lucrative in capable hands), and it relieves them from much of the anxiety and expense at present preliminary to sale. In particular, it will indirectly leave a loophole to the unhappy evicted tenant, to whom the landlord would often sell at present if he were not obliged under existing law to reinstate him first without any guarantee that sale can in the end be effected. The provision that six years' undisputed possession of rent and profits is to confer a title for selling is one of the best features in the bill. It should of course have been made years ago, but it will now for the first time enable many landlords to sell to their tenants. We congratulate Mr. Wyndham heartily on this thoroughly practical clause. The Land Commission is to acquire outright from the landlord if three-fourths of the tenants agree to his price, and will then deal direct with the purchasing tenants. It acquires some of the privileges vested already in the Congested Districts Board, and this is a point which deserves the highest praise, for it is well worth while to run a little risk in order to settle a disturbed estate. The power of sale to neighbouring occupiers is an interesting provision.

Everything of course depends upon the practical administration of the law, and we foresee difficulties when the Land Commission remains in possession of part of the purchased estates. The tenant on those parts will be in much the same position as the cultivator in the North-Western Provinces of India, paying to the State a rent assessed by the State. If, in Ireland, these assessments are ever raised, there will be trouble. But taken as a whole, the bill is a wise and generous measure, and shows that the Government is in earnest in its attempt to deal with the causes of Irish discontent. We note that Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman would not take the trouble even to listen to its introduction! We trust most earnestly that the Government will not be deterred from passing this most salutary measure by any obstruction on the part of those Nationalists whose occupation will be gone when agrarian agitation ceases.

THE ETHICS OF RESISTANCE.

A PROLONGED resistance like that of the Boers, beyond a point when to the eyes of prudence there appears no prospect of success, raises a question of ethics which may be considered apart from the circumstances of any particular struggle. We must assume that ultimate success is not to be achieved, and that resistance is not prolonged with the prospect of obtaining better terms than the victor would allow to the vanquished if the war ended sooner. The fighting is

not to be continued for the sake of gaining time, which may be of importance at a future stage of the struggle, and be merely a temporary sacrifice to obtain a definite future advantage. Leonidas is to devote himself at Thermopylæ though there can be no Plataea to follow. Everything must be known and the hopeless nature of the sacrifice deliberately contemplated and accepted.

At first sight these propositions seem to suppose insanity in those persons who would continue a contest under such conditions. It might be said that, as the object of war between two civilised peoples was to settle a dispute which had arisen and could not be settled by diplomatic methods, some sense of proportion should be observed between the object to be gained by fighting and the cost of prolonging the war. War otherwise conducted in the usual course of things would be absolute barbarism and worthy only of savages. Civilised nations in fact do not fight so; and it is never dreamed that every contest involves a war à outrance such as seems to be involved in the struggle with the Boers. Even the bitterest two wars of the last half-century, the Civil War in America and the Franco-Prussian War, were not carried to the extremity we have supposed. The defeated party in each case could still, if it had chosen, have inflicted losses and prepared disasters for the conquerors, long after the war was over in a military sense. Evidently two nations cannot any more than two individuals live in perpetual conflict; and war carried on in the Boer spirit would mean the suspension of political and international life. War would regrade to conquest. Nations would no longer have recourse to it as a way out of a deadlock, but the strongest would deliberately embark on aggressive war whenever opportunity suited, knowing that it would mean the extinction of a rival or in any case increase reputation for power. We should revert to Cambyse's vein.

The fight for national existence generally has been recognised as justifying resistance to the utmost point and held to consecrate deliberate and apparently useless sacrifice. The excuse no doubt in many cases has been too readily admitted, if we look at the subject from the wider point of view of the benefit of the world, and freed from the glamour which the mere claim of patriotism casts over our thoughts. It would have been a benefit for Greece and the world if some Greek state had anticipated in Hellas the action of Rome in Italy. So it was fortunate for Britain that she came within the scope of the Roman Conquest, as it was for the many nations whose resistance to absorption was something less than the extreme patriotic devotion which we are supposing. Ireland was unfortunate in being left outside this dominion, and doubly unfortunate in not having been thoroughly conquered by the sub-Norman invasion from England as England had been conquered in the original invasion from Normandy. "Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell"; but though the partition of Poland was rightly reprobated by all the European nations who obtained no share of it, and neither Russia, Prussia, nor Austria was precisely the sort of government which at that time was the best imaginable, yet it is doubtful whether, on the basis of utilitarian politics, Poland lost very much to her essential advantage. She ceased to be anarchic as she had been previously. So with the Slav States of Eastern Europe. We can imagine a great deal of patriotic devotion given to the cause of Slav nationality without being convinced thereby that the world would not gain by the whole of the Slavs being firmly welded into a new great state independently, or as part of some historic nation.

If it is therefore so easily conceivable that the most ardent patriotism devoted to a particular national idea may not be of any advantage to the world at large, why should we admire, as a spectacle of the highest virtue, a resistance which is maintained up to the point of the annihilation of the vanquished? They might, perhaps, make favourable terms with the victors, but will not because they cling to a political ideal which may be neither for their own advantage nor that of the world in general. To put a concrete instance. Scotland, it is generally admitted, gained by her incorporation with England. We should have admired the Scottish people, had they immolated themselves on the altar of their nationality rather than accept the same terms

as the price of submission, almost as much as if not more than we have admired their ability to continue the contest till they could come into the union as an independent nation. Yet had the fortune of the struggle gone against them what would have been the value ethical or political of a resistance waged after it had become evidently hopeless? We could only regard it as a species of martyrdom for an ideal, and in fact we have never restricted our admiration of martyrdoms to those that promised a successful issue and the triumph of the principle or doctrine of the martyr. It has been said that martyrdom is a blunder, especially in those causes which events subsequently proved not to have sufficient vitality to achieve triumph. None the less however we do not stint our admiration for the unsuccessful martyr. We laud the hopeless martyr heroes who defied superior power apparently on the same principle as that which extorts our admiration when men throw away their lives without any possibility of accomplishing their object—the only defence on immediate utilitarian grounds for their sacrifice. Do we regard as a fool or a hero the man who tries, though he cannot swim, to rescue his friend from drowning and loses his life?

It is difficult, if not impossible, to disentangle the sentiment of patriotism from that of love for one's own blood and deep instinctive devotion to the family. A country is idealised in terms of the family and the patriot has always apostrophised her and expressed his love in the language of love for the mother, the wife or the mistress. And what man is there who would lay down his life for these objects of his passion to bring them succour or rescue from insult, outrage or oppression, only on the terms that he should not throw his life away in vain? In all such instances there seems to be something of a generic character. In none of them does analysis seem possible beyond that sense of manhood, of right and wrong, which under whatever mistakes in application to affairs, or of difference in civilisation, whereby conduct considered right in one place is deemed wrong in another, constitutes the obligation and duty to honour our own nature and is the starting point of ethics. Wherever we can be sure that the antagonism and resistance of one person to another in the ordinary contests of life, or of one country to another in a desperate war, are based on this principle, then they are justifiable: otherwise they are not. In some cases it will be difficult to distinguish between a noble antagonism and resistance of this kind and an ignoble kind of revenge. But even of revenge it has been said that it is a kind of wild justice, and if we condemn revenge it is often not because it is revenge *per se* but because it has been sought in mean and cowardly fashion. The duel has been considered socially inexpedient rather than morally wrong in certain classes of cases. If we are inclined to suggest revenge, and desire to inflict injury, as the motive for what appears as an example of unreasonable resistance, we have to consider how far this distinction as to revenge must be taken into account. We must make the distinction, or else there will be few instances of patriotic resistance after all hope of success is gone that can meet with the approval of the moralist. Surely we do make it, or our applause of some very fine exploits must be immoral. We can hardly hope to find an example of an absolutely pure patriotism. Broadly speaking we have been inclined to justify extreme and vain resistance where the personality of the defended state is imperilled. There is an analogy in this case, which seems valid, to the instances we have mentioned above where it is necessary to assert individual manhood and self-respect at whatever cost. In the ordinary wars of states obviously the limit of resistance is political expediency. If this test condemns any particular example of resistance then, if it will not bear the other tests we have suggested, there seem no other grounds upon which it can be justified.

DON QUICHOTE.

SOMETIMES, in monotonous moments, we wish that we might meet M. Paul Dérroulède—ex-deputy, now only poet and patriot, with domicile Saint-Sebastien, Spain—at the head of a mob once

more: M. Paul Dérroulède in his black frock coat and deputy's sash, décoré, erect, en route for a patriot's grave or a patriotic monument, or the statue of Jeanne d'Arc, where he so often paused to hold forth. Gay were those encounters. Suddenly, while sauntering, we would come face to face with Paul Dérroulède and retinue. Immediately, excitement in the street. Groups formed on the kerbstone. Shopkeepers came to their doors. Gamins clambered up lamp posts. Policemen assumed an important air. Cries arose of "Vive la France", "Vive Dérroulède". And one laughed, or one cheered. One followed, and found oneself marching almost in military fashion. One was charged and chased by the police: at last set running. Or—one reached Jeanne d'Arc's statue in safety, and cheered again when Paul Dérroulède took up an imposing position against the railing that encircles "la Pucelle" astride on her horse.

There, he should hold forth during the elections; for there, at such a time, is his proper place. But the Chamber of Deputies has just thrown out the measure that pleaded for his return; and so we, like others, have been reviewing our reminiscences of the Chief of the Patriots.

No one in Paris detested Paul Dérroulède. He had fought the Prussians, valiantly. Ever since the end of the war he had protected the interests of the shabby, scrubby little soldier—"le pioupiou"—and composed songs and poems in his honour. He was sincere—but full of fancies, delusions. Perhaps his exploits against the Prussians had told on a highly nervous temperament, affected a by no means strong head. Exalté, at all events. He had the fanatic's eyes, and a restless manner. His hand pointed heavenwards, and his whole frame shook with emotion when he uttered his favourite heroic cry—"La France!" He was theatrical, extravagant, incoherent: in fine—to the level headed man—absurd. Yet no one "detested" Paul Dérroulède; for he was neither malicious like Edouard Drumont nor maudlin like François Coppée, nor yet bloodthirsty like Henri Rochefort. Indeed, the Parisian considered him a gallant, an almost romantic figure; and declared that he should have lived in the middle ages, and owned a castle with a moat. Or, he would have made a capital crusader. Or—who could tell?—in a former state of existence he might have been . . . Don Quixote.—"C'est vrai: Don Quichote", laughingly agreed a boulevardier. And straightway pictured Paul Dérroulède on a steed. And equipped him with a breast plate, a shield, and a lance. And chose for him a Sancho Panza in the person of his faithful lieutenant, Marcel Habert. And, captivated and carried away by the idea, developed it, elaborated it, until Don Dérroulède on a steed and Sancho Habert on an ass—a red ass, "l'Ane Rouge, mon cher"—were made to sally forth on mysterious expeditions on dark, dark nights. But we wander. We have left Paul Dérroulède in the lurch. With a last tribute to the Army and a last cry of "Vive la France", Paul Dérroulède concluded amidst enthusiastic cheers, shook hands with all those who coveted that honour, then placed himself at the head of his followers again. And away we went, a triumphant procession. And once more cheers arose of "Vive Dérroulède" as we marched along almost in military fashion. And if policemen interfered there were protests; and if arrests were made, there was a scuffle. . . . More police. . . . Something of a panic. . . . Then, in full flight, the patriots; in hot pursuit, the policemen. . . . And Paul Dérroulède? . . . There, on the kerbstone, wrangling, gesticulating, angrily demanding that his deputy's sash be respected. Finally, a cab for Paul Dérroulède; and, next morning, in his newspaper, "Le Drapeau", a glowing account of the "grandiose" patriotic meeting held at the foot of Jeanne d'Arc's statue. . . . Thus, throughout the winter, spring, and summer of 1899, we marched at all hours of the day and night. There was no knowing what might not happen. We had always to be on the alert. We might make no positive appointment, saying, "Tomorrow, then, at 9.30 in such and such a café"—for on our way thither we might meet Paul Dérroulède and retinue, or, on reaching the street or boulevard where the café lay, learn that a scuffle had just taken place and that the thoroughfare had therefore been cleared and

that no one might pass. Prayers were useless: under no pretext could we penetrate the cordon of police. And it was tantalising to see the café but twenty yards distant, brilliantly lighted, where our friend was waiting . . . and only see it. "Monsieur", we pleaded, "in that café is a poor friend who is ill, and who leaves Paris to-morrow morning for Egypt, and who has but this chance of bidding us adieu". "Monsieur", was the reply, "I regret it. But console yourself. At the station you will be able to say adieu". Finally, to the last policeman on the line, "Monsieur, in that café a friend awaits us with 10,000 francs. We shall be ruined if we meet him not". But back came the answer: "Monsieur, I regret it. But even if your friend had brought you 100,000 francs, I could not let you pass."—"Then, Monsieur, it is ruin."—"Monsieur, I regret it. But console yourself. No doubt your friend has forgotten to bring the 10,000 francs."

So Paul Déroulède kept us entertained, gave us healthy exercise—had he not introduced "marching" and provided Paris with "The Chase"? Soon, it developed into a veritable sport. We grew nimble. We became—harriers. Also, our eye was trained to spy out an ambush at a second's notice. No one need have been bored during the Dreyfus Days: Paul Déroulède was there, in fine form, most indefatigable of impresarios. How vast was the crowd and chorus he led to the Gare St. Lazare to receive M. Loubet on his election to the Presidentship! The new President was to be made to feel himself unpopular in Paris: so—shouts, shrill whistles. Admirable M. Loubet! Serenely, smilingly he stepped into his carriage and drove away. Irrepressible Paul Déroulède! Impotent, though; and never more impotent than on the day of the attempted coup d'état. . . . Parisians rose early—for they wished to get a good view of Félix Faure's funeral. Parisians, therefore, flocked to those streets through which the procession was to pass; soldiers and policemen guarded the entire line of route, and so whole quarters of Paris were deserted, unprotected. When once the cortège had started, the Elysée would be tenantless. . . . A splendid cortège! Each Power imposingly represented. Three amazing Prussian officers: giants. . . . A memorable service in Notre Dame. Among all the grand mourners, the homely figure of Emile Loubet, President of the Republic. . . . Then, the slow procession through the streets, to the sad strains of Chopin's Funeral March. In the cortège, scores of distinguished personages, only the elect. However, one celebrity missing, a friend of the late Félix Faure's. No other than Paul Déroulède. And yet he had deplored the death of the late President and the advent of his successor. . . . "A l'Elysée, Général, à l'Elysée" . . . In a distant quarter of Paris stood Paul Déroulède with his hand on the bridle of General Roget's horse. . . . "A l'Elysée, Général, à l'Elysée" . . . Behind General Roget, soldiers under his command. He had but to turn his horse's head, and his men would have followed him—"to the Elysée, General, the Elysée". And Paul Déroulède and Marcel Habert would have followed also. And when the guard outside the Elysée had been gagged and the General safely installed, Paul Déroulède and Marcel Habert and retinue would have called upon Paris to uphold "the honour of the army" by temporarily supporting General Roget. And Paris would have—No matter: General Roget refused to turn his horse's head.

But—still no one in Paris "detested" Paul Déroulède. He was tried for conspiracy; yet succeeded in touching the heart of his jurors, and was acquitted. And so we marched again: and so "The Chase" continued. As time went on, however, it was generally agreed that so much extolisation could not last for ever. It was sad, but it was inevitable; it was cruel, but it was imperative—Paul Déroulède had to be removed from Paris. Everyone felt that the close of "The Chase" was near—for it was rumoured persistently that the Senate was to be turned into a High Court as at the time of General Boulanger's downfall, and, that before Messieurs les Sénateurs, Paul Déroulède and others would be tried for treason, and sentenced to perpetual exile or imprisonment. And Paris rejoiced

at the idea of Messieurs les Sénateurs constituting a Grand Jury: for as a rule they doze and dream in their fauteuils—one of them is said even to sigh in his sleep, as though tormented by some secret—doze and dream so placidly that the Senate is popularly known as the "Palais du Sommeil". And a High Court there was: with the President of the Upper Chamber—M. Fallières—as judge, the Senators as jurors, an array of generals, statesmen, and other public characters as witnesses for the prosecution, and a further array of distinguished personages—mostly "patriots"—for the defence. For the attempted coup d'état, Paul Déroulède might have received the severest punishment. Guilty, certainly . . . yet with extenuating circumstances! "Vive la France", cried the Chief of the Patriots. Ten years of exile was the sentence; to be conducted officially to the frontier, was the order.

And now, at Saint-Sébastien, his present quarters, Paul Déroulède is a source of infinite revenue to the postal authorities. "Vive la France", he telegraphs perpetually. And back goes the reply "Vive Déroulède", signed by Henri Rochefort, "Gyp", François Coppée, Lucien Millevoe. All these agitate to-day, but secretly, in cowardly fashion. They never march. Platforms, they prefer to Jeanne d'Arc's statue. Not one of them would dare revive "The Chase" . . .

Yes, in monotonous moments, we miss Paul Déroulède.

TO IDLENESS.

O IDLENESS, too fond of me.
Begone, I know and hate thee!
Nothing canst thou of pleasure see
In one that so doth rate thee;

For empty are both mind and heart
While thou with me dost linger;
More profit would to thee impart
A babe that sucks its finger.

I know thou hast a better way
To spend these hours thou squandrest;
Some lad toils in the trough to-day
Who groans because thou wandrest:

A bleating sheep he dowses now
Or wrestles with ram's terror,
Ah, 'mid the washing's hubbub how
His sighs reproach thine error!

He knows and loves thee Idleness;
For when his sheep are browsing,
His open eyes enchant and bless
A mind divinely drowsing;

No slave to sleep he wills and sees
From hill-lawns the brown tillage;
Green winding lanes and clumps of trees,
Far town or nearer village;

The sea itself; the fishing fleet
Where more, thine idle lovers,
Hark'ning to sea-mews find thee sweet
Like him who hears the plovers.

Begone; those haul their ropes at sea,
These plunge sheep in yon river:
Free, free from toil thy friends, and me
From Idleness deliver.

T. STURGE MOORE.

A SUCCESSFUL LITERARY MAN.

A COUPLE of weeks ago this Review had the honour of discussing the career of a successful literary man—if my memory does not fail me his name was Mr. Stephen Lane. This week another comes before me. It is with much pleasure we hail the appearance, in two sumptuous volumes, of the works of Mr. J. Stubbs Montmorency ("Gleams of the Silver Tree, and other Prose and Poetic Dreams": London, Messrs. Brummel and Co. 3s. 6d. net). The two books, though extremely slight—one contains only 51 pages and the other 38—are charmingly got up. The expenditure in leads and in white margins must alone have been enormous; but it is well known by now that Messrs. Brummel spare no expense in bringing out the work of a successful author. Before proceeding to a more detailed examination of the "Prose and Poetic Dreams" of Mr. Montmorency, and giving some account of the curious incidents which luckily brought him into public notice, let us demonstrate at the outset, by quoting a few of his lines and sentences, that he is well worth the space we propose to devote to him. Take, then, the opening of his sweet poem "To a girl whom I escorted home after a party". What could be more characteristic of Mr. Montmorency's attitude towards life, and especially to girls, than this:—

"You leaned so tenderly on my muscleless arm
That I was happy."

Here, might one almost say, is the whole of Mr. Montmorency (not to mention the J. Stubbs). Take, again, the Prose Dream which affords the books their title:—

"I see the silver moon gleaming cold, like a slip of a young antelope, through the silver leaves of the silver tree; and, resting, dreamily, on a branch of the silver tree I see a cat with a silvery coat. She reminds me of a young city-office girl in an omnibus, reading, it may be, my works; and I would fain lay my head against her, and rest there, like her, dreaming, until breakfast is ready."

Prose such as this, so pure, showing so fine a love for the metal which the great American nation would fain make its standard, prose so happily free from humour, has not been written, we venture to say, since Chaucer. We need not pause to ask our readers whether it is worth while tracing Mr. Montmorency's development, from the cradle to the publisher; we are sure they are with us.

As this is the first appearance in print of Mr. J. Stubbs Montmorency, and little or indeed nothing about him has appeared in the low-class papers which devote themselves to idle tittle-tattle, we are forced to fall back upon certain printed matter which has been kindly communicated to us by Messrs. Brummel. It appears that Mr. Montmorency was born, early in life, in a northern town. He acquired a knowledge of the alphabet and other matters there, and he was so successful that soon he proceeded to take up rather an important appointment in a tobacconist's shop. We are violating no confidences in stating that at this time he was known simply as Mr. J. Stubbs; his employer, in fact, was in the habit of omitting both the "J." and the "Mr." Later on, finding he was becoming distinguished Mr. Stubbs resumed the old family name, of which neither his father, nor grandfather nor great-grandfather knew anything. Mr. Stubbs served his master faithfully, even as Jacob served the estimable parent of Rachel, and for the same reason—for the girl. But whereas Jacob served for one girl, Mr. Stubbs had a finer, broader, more comprehensive ideal—the girl in general. He wrote verses, which—if, the publishers inform us, the present venture is successful—may some day be dignified, in their catalogue, with the name of poetry. Soon the bounds of the tobacconist's shop appeared too straitened to young Stubbs. He procured a French dictionary and the works of Messrs. le Gallienne and Hall Caine and Miss Marie Corelli. After seven weeks of assiduous study he ventured to London. At the restaurant he frequented he at once drew attention by saying "oui" to the waiter instead of "yes" (he did not know, at that time, the use of "si") and "non" instead of "no". Mr. Brummel (of the well-known firm of Brummel and Co.),

overhearing this one day, introduced himself to Mr. Montmorency and proposed a book on the lines of that we are now noticing. Mr. Montmorency gleefully accepted, and, after a few days of study in Dieppe and Boulogne, set to work. Mr. Brummel said he could sell the book, and it would appear he has done so, for, although not a copy is yet in the hands of the public, it is already in its second edition. A few particulars about the manner of achieving this may be of interest. Mr. Brummel scoured the country with a specimen copy, making "personal" calls on the leading booksellers and offering them special advantages if they would take up the work. Then Mr. Brummel returned to town and gave orders to print just as many copies as were ordered. These will go into the country; and at present you may see in any of the London shop windows an announcement to the effect that, the first edition of "Gleams of the Silver Tree" being exhausted, a second is in the press and will shortly be issued.

Mr. Stubbs Montmorency, in a word, has arrived. His first edition is undoubtedly sold—though Mr. Brummel may, later, have to take back some copies—and in London his second will certainly sell. The valuable information we have given above will shortly be sent to the whole press; Mr. Montmorency's restaurant cronies will boom him in the journals to which they have access; Messrs. Brummel will carefully withdraw all their "ads" from the papers which decline to insert puffs of Mr. Montmorency. His success is assured. Already the following paragraphs are in active preparation:—

"It is rumoured that Sir Henry Irving, Mr. George Alexander, Mr. Tree and Mr. Wyndham are about to form a syndicate with a view of commissioning Mr. Stubbs Montmorency to write on the subject of 'Herodias' Daughter'. The work of so eminent a poet, played by these four great actors, and a woman and supers, is sure to be a great success."

"Mr. Stubbs Montmorency contemplates a gigantic philosophical work on 'The Relation of Billiards to the Universe, with some remarks on the Sex Problem'. Should Mr. Montmorency carry out his purpose we have no doubt the proofs will be read by Mr. Roberts and Mr. Jerome K. Jerome. —Mr. Montmorency has written everything so far under the name of Stubbs, but he intends publishing under his true name of Montmorency."

"In connexion with the rumoured resignation of Mr. Austin of his present post as poet laureate, we may say that the name of Mr. J. Stubbs Montmorency is freely mentioned as his successor."

Unfortunately we have not the space to discuss Mr. Montmorency's present book in detail. Besides, we are requested not to do so until the book is ready for publication. This is merely the advance notice, or, if you will, puff, which the publishers modestly ask of us. We must content ourselves with congratulating the author, and his publishers, on their success. Cynical readers may think we are pulling their legs; but we assure them we have no intention of tampering with those members and write in perfect good faith. Further, we assert that Montmorency is not the first whose name has been made in the manner we describe. Far from it, there are at least half a dozen young people whose names are now constantly in the papers merely because their affairs have been engineered as Mr. Brummel engineered Mr. Stubbs Montmorency's. They are all "literary men", they are all "well known", all "successful". What it is worth to them in solid cash I should not like to say; I only know they are painfully anxious to do any kind of journalism, however poorly paid, and that their books occupy the booksellers' shelves which might be filled with, let us say, a very different class of work. J. F. R.

THE ABSOLUTE LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

SINCE we last referred to the affairs of the Absolute Life Office the accounts for 1901 have been issued, and the general meeting of the company has been held. The revelations made in the accounts, and the disclosures brought out at the meeting, show that the

position of the company is even worse than the keenest critic could have anticipated.

The Life premium income was £5,753. The Accident premiums £1,701, while the premiums outstanding amounted to £4,261. The expenditure in the Life department was £14,839, or 257 per cent. of the premium income. The capital paid up during the year was £12,753, and the decrease in the funds £4,684. The claims amounted to £4,980, or very nearly the whole of the nominal premium income, and more than the amount actually received in premiums.

The liabilities of the company under its policies have been valued by Mr. George King, and, from the admissions of the chairman at the meeting, are apparently about £20,000. In the balance sheet the Life fund is shown as £14,000, but of this amount about £3,000, which ought to have been paid over to the trustees for the policy-holders, has been spent by the directors on litigation and other purposes. There is thus a deficiency in the Life fund of about £9,000, or nearly 50 per cent.

In the light of the valuation it is necessary to revise the balance-sheet recently published by the company. The liability to the Life fund is £20,000; for debentures, £20,000; for sundry creditors, including the Accident fund, over £6,000; for capital paid up, about £32,000, making a total of £78,000. According to the balance-sheet the available assets are about £37,000, showing a deficiency of £33,000. The investments are, however, stated at cost, and apparently over-valued to the extent of about £3,000. In arriving at these figures we have deducted from the liabilities a sum of £988 lent to the company by the chairman, since this amount was repaid by the allotment of 20,000 shares of £1 each, on which 1s. per share was paid on application. The issue of these shares was going to help the company over its difficulties, but on the receipt of the £1,000 the chairman thought it an opportune moment to claim the repayment of his loan, and the company benefited to the extent of £2.

Capital called up, but unpaid or forfeited, figures at £13,000, and the remaining uncalled capital, excluding the £20,000 recently issued, is another £13,000. It is quite certain that this unpaid capital of £26,000 can only produce a very small amount; since the balance-sheet was issued, one shareholder has won an action for the rescission of his contract to take shares; and actions for the same purpose are pending by Dr. Fegan and Mr. Whieldon Barnett for the same purpose. These gentlemen were formerly directors of the company, and certainly did not contribute to the prosperity of the office. They hold between them four thousand shares.

The chairman admitted at the meeting that at least nine actions were pending against the company: one is by a shareholder for an agreed surrender value. Another is by an ordinary creditor. Either of these should shortly be in a position to issue execution, and so enable the debenture-holders to step in, and obtain their money before it is entirely lost by the directors. The trustees for the policy-holders, who seem to have been singularly complacent hitherto, are also proceeding against the directors. They have received £11,000, whereas they ought to have £20,000; while, if report speaks truly, the trust deed has only recently been signed by the directors, and is not yet in the possession of the trustees for the policy-holders.

As showing the straits in which the company has been placed, we have the admission of the chairman that the company has been borrowing money at 6 per cent., and that some bills, given by Mr. Pope, the former secretary, who was dismissed, have been discounted by the company at higher rates than this. Certain people, who are well-known money-lenders, are connected with the company, and it is not difficult to guess at the sort of terms the directors may have been paying for accommodation.

A resolution brought forward by one of the directors, proposing the winding-up of the company, was defeated, mainly by the use of votes of the 20,000 shares which were issued in opportune time for obtaining control of the meeting. The former solicitors of the company have expressed their intention of contesting the validity of these votes. Among the people who voted against this sensible resolution to wind up were

sundry people who have qualified during the last week or two by the payment of a few shillings.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MR. BRODRICK'S "LAST RESOURCE".

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

House of Commons, 24 March, 1902.

SIR,—I agree with you in thinking we must regard Mr. Brodrick's new proposals as his last resource, as the final attempt to adapt our quaint insular terms of service to the requirements of modern war efficiency. It will be most interesting to see how far the experiment succeeds, and for what length of time; though we must earnestly hope that a European war may not come upon us while the experimental process is still going on.

To me it appears that there are two principal objections to the new proposals:

(1) The new system is not a logical carrying out of the policy "if you want a good article you must pay for it". We want a really good article; we are about to pay for only a fairly good one. We shall no doubt obtain a certain number of recruits from a rather higher, a rather better class of society; but we are still leaving untouched most of the best physical and intellectual material we as a nation possess, and in that way we are deliberately stereotyping our inferiority as compared with other European countries, an inferiority which—owing to the conditions of modern warfare—is becoming more and more dangerous.

(2) While the proposals for overcoming the difficulty in obtaining soldiers include many contrivances for making him personally more comfortable and happy, they are unaccompanied by any of those serious reforms in the whole working and tone of the army, which everyone was taught to expect. In dealing with soldiers of a somewhat improved social grade it will certainly be desirable to treat them more like self-respecting men in all that relates to their pay and clothing, their rations, and what they may or may not do when they are off duty. In the field, however, and under arms, it seems to me that it will be more than ever necessary to make this soldier amenable to discipline, a discipline which should be expounded, illustrated, and administered by long-service professional officers, promoted and rewarded by merit and not by interest.

I certainly have serious doubts as to how the emancipated, voluntary, short-service go-as-you-please and do-as-you-please soldier, will fit in with unreformed officers laden with antiquated traditions about subordination, but unendowed with any modern professional spirit of the kind which we had hoped would have been breathed forth, before now, from Pall Mall.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

M. P.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Ringwood, New Forest, 26 March, 1902.

SIR,—I should have liked to offer some comments on the figures of "A Cambridge Lecturer" in your issue of 22 March. Unfortunately I am beyond the reach of statistics but with your permission I will return to the figures later. Accepting however those given by your correspondent, is it not clear that since 1894, if not since 1892, there has been "a steady decrease"? I do not know how else to describe a drop from 54 and 57 to 27 and 34 per cent. Even the laudable optimism of the writer does not encourage him to maintain that since 1894 the percentages have remained stationary. Now the whole point of the two articles in the SATURDAY REVIEW as I understand them was (1) that the new system was devised to encourage an *increasing* percentage of purely university trained men to enter the civil services;

(2) that this system had "failed". It is small comfort then to be assured that this proof of success lies in a drop from 54 per cent. in 1894 to 34 per cent. in 1901. That the percentage should remain stationary would be a matter of concern to some of us at Oxford; is it surprising that a drop of 20 per cent. should cause "serious anxiety" and a desire to scrutinise cause methods and results? Similarly I would contend that any increase "in the average length of time" spent by a university trained man at a crammer's (and your correspondent apparently admits the increase) is a matter "for serious anxiety" and for a simple reason. The period for preparation is not indefinitely elastic: it is strictly limited. Months spent at a crammer's mean months taken from the university. From this conclusion there is no escape. The facts revealed under this head in the analytical table for 1901 published by "The Oxford Magazine" may not be alarming but they are such as to give an Oxford man who believes in his university a few searchings of heart.

Your correspondent, justifiably enough, writes in his fifth paragraph from the point of view of "A Cambridge Lecturer" sans phrase. Permit me to do the same for Oxford. The Cambridge candidate can win first-class honours and a degree in three years; in that time he has received the liberal education of his university which he cannot "supersede" but which he can then "supplement" as he chooses. Oxford is in a very different position. Classical honours come in a four years' course. Some of us then must emphatically repudiate the conclusion "that it is no bad thing for a man when he has passed three years in a university to be removed from the social and other distractions"—in other words for Oxford men simply Oxford schools and Oxford teaching. In short one of two deplorable results may (and does as a fact) follow: (1) an Oxford candidate may leave abruptly after three years and proceed "to co-ordinate his knowledge" at a crammer's "with a view to examination" in which case he does not take the Honours course and degree at all; or (2) he may in defiance of his tutor subordinate his work for *Literæ Humaniores* to cramming up supplementary subjects, in which case he evades the full benefits of a liberal education as it has been planned and is worked at his university. Finally, after passing, he may decline to return to Oxford for his year of preparation prior to sailing for India on the ground that he has been assured on the highest authority "it is no bad thing to be removed from the social and other distractions of university life". On this point the opinion of the past and present Readers in Indian Law at Oxford would be interesting and not perhaps altogether encouraging.

I am informed that at Cambridge they are making strenuous efforts to secure an educational organisation which will prepare undergraduates under the university system for the Civil Services, and keep them at Cambridge after they have passed. Surely this is wholly superfluous zeal if Cambridge "has little room to complain". At the same time I heartily wish that Oxford optimism was expressing itself in so unnecessary a reform.

I do not propose to traverse the ground covered in your second article, but may I point out that the omission in your programme emphasised by "A Cambridge Lecturer" was really no omission at all. As I understand the article, the most important change proposed was that the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge should combine to compel the commissioners to re-arrange from time to time the conditions of the examination so as rigidly to prevent "cramming" ousting "education". The method of scientific "standardisation" suggested would, I cannot but think, more than fill "A Cambridge Lecturer's" omission. If a Lit. Hum. candidate can go in knowing that the few but thoroughly mastered subjects which had won him a high place in the first class would inevitably produce a better total of marks than that totted up by one who had deserted the University in his third year and "got up" half a dozen subjects to atone for his classical deficiencies, some of us at Oxford would have, in the interests of education and the Civil Services, "no reason to complain": and the State would get a better man into the bargain. But with the SATURDAY REVIEW

I am convinced that this and other equally desirable changes detailed in your columns will not take place until Oxford frankly recognises the Civil Services examination—deliberately asserts that education for the service of the State is one of the most important duties of a university whose privilege it is to be a champion of the benefits of a liberal education. The crammers to their honour are not blind to the fact: Cambridge, if common knowledge does not err, is not blind either: perhaps Oxford when it is "five lengths astern" may awake to the conclusion that the fault lies not with the tide, nor with the rowing nor with the crew nor even with the coaching but with the shape and construction of the boat.

Yours faithfully,

C. GRANT ROBERTSON.

THE EDUCATION PROBLEM.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Junior Carlton Club, 20 March.

SIR,—In my last letter I asked Mr. Maclean to submit to us his alternative policy. Now it is before us—"minority schools". This in my country parish, which Mr. Maclean has already taken as an example, would mean two schools, separately staffed and equipped, with an average attendance of fifteen children each! Minority schools in towns are perfectly feasible and are what I advocate; but if Mr. Maclean's solution of the educational problem is two schools, one for churchmen the other for dissenters, in every country parish, I am bound to tell him that he has not solved the problem and that his policy is impossible.

ATHELSTAN RILEY.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Eccles, 11 February, 1902.

SIR,—Recently one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools asked whether a post-graduate course say of nine or twelve months—half spent in actual teaching in school—was desirable for members of day training colleges. In theory and by analogy undoubtedly it is right to adopt a post-graduate course of technical training, but I think that such training should be based on a firm scientific foundation, or else sanctioned by long and noble tradition as is special preparation for the service of the Church. I feel however that much of the elementary teacher's professional training is merely empirical and specialised to meet the requirements of a departed system; and that therefore practice in an elementary school is rather apt to perpetuate methods no longer ostensibly required by the nature of present-day elementary education. But while the character of the work has changed, school conditions have remained much the same; the classes are as large and the buildings are often as unsuitable as ever; and these defects are emphasised by the fact that in spite of them a higher kind of teaching is now required than was formerly the case.

Thus the art of elementary teaching must still consist largely in the repression of the individual in the interests of class order and quietness, while the preparation of intellectual spoon-meat is a scholastic recipe possessing all the tyranny which belongs to things of the past. When conditions permit it we shall have, I think, to reconstruct much of the art of elementary school teaching, and this reconstruction will I believe fall largely into the hands of those who have in our Universities seen the way in which men of great intellectual powers develop these subjects, and who have also as pupil teachers had some practice in elementary school teaching. The comparative width and variety of their University experience, both intellectual and social, will probably have awakened in them a power of self-criticism which is the greatest factor in personal development, and the consequent evolution of new methods of work; nothing for instance seemed to

increase one's mental grip so much as a course of Sir John Seeley's lectures.

Intelligence is produced from intelligence; no such abiogenesis as the development of intelligence by the mechanical methods too often still found in our primary schools is possible. And thus an intelligent teacher is required for the many as well as for the few in his class. The educational ladder alone can no more catch capacity than can the weighing machine develop national physique; but a teacher at the foot of the ladder who is not wedded to the tradition that all pupils must do equally well can see which have it in them to rise and will help those on even though the appearance of such capacity may seem irregular and inconvenient. For the majority of children however thorough practice in a few subjects forms probably the best intellectual regimen; but it should be supplemented by a course of manual training and the cultivation of powers of observation by methods which figure prominently in the Kindergarten and the School of Science but which are conspicuously absent in the intervening—the "Standard"—period.

Lastly, a post-graduate course would be too expensive for the average day training college student, and could be followed only if the inadequate Government grant of £25 were, if not increased, at least continued for a fourth year.

I remain, yours faithfully,

FRANK J. ADKINS.

ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Santa Ana, California, U.S.A.

SIR,—The belief expressed in a recent article in your Review, treating of the possibility of a wrangle between Germany and the United States in the matter of South American colonisation and the part Great Britain might take therein, that "under the existing ministry we should undoubtedly pull chestnuts out of the fire for the Americans" is certainly justified by the actions of that ministry during its period of power. But when you encourage us to hope for better things from ministries to come, judging from what has happened in the past, you are altogether too optimistic. No doubt Lord Salisbury was guilty of short-sighted policy, owing to want of knowledge of American political methods, when he receded from the position he originally took in the Venezuelan matter, and thereby saved America from the necessity of dismounting from the high horse upon which she had climbed; and, perhaps, of even worse policy when, on the eve of the Spanish-American war, he stood in the way of the Continental powers in their intent to forbid armed interference in the affairs of Spain in Cuba. But was not Mr. Canning equally impolitic in curbing the action of "The Holy Alliance" when in 1823 it had planned to assist Spain to recover her authority over her revolted colonies? In doing so he saved America from the necessity of a humiliating retreat from her lofty pretensions as self-appointed guardian of these colonies, which she had proclaimed with much sounding of trumpets, or else of engaging in a war in which her defeat was a foregone conclusion. Thus, by the grace of the British ministry, the Monroe Doctrine was enthroned in the West, and since has been made to pose as the higher law of the Two Americas.

I am aware that this action of Mr. Canning has been praised by some, and he himself appeared to be of the opinion that it was one of the greatest diplomatic strokes of the century. But I should like to know how Great Britain has ever profited thereby? The chief use made by the United States of the weapon thus put into their hands was to employ it to threaten and coerce the very nation without whose assistance it would never have been forged, and without whose support its edge would have remained blunt and harmless. Something similar occurred in the later instance—I mean the action of the British Government in the late war with Spain—when as soon as the sound of the last gun fired had ceased the storm of vituperation against Great Britain, its

Government and its people—normal to the press and platform of America, but held in abeyance while danger from foreign complications existed—broke out again with augmented virulence. Dire threats were uttered against Great Britain if she did not yield in the Alaska matter, and all the crimes charged against her by American orators and writers for the past century were re-hashed and dished up for the opprobrium of the citizens of the immaculate Great Republic. As soon, too, as her help was no longer needed it was mendaciously denied that Great Britain had afforded any. So, in both cases, the earlier and the later, it would appear that in pulling American chestnuts out of the fire Great Britain did not escape a scorching.

And this is not all, for similar results have been produced in every case of diplomatic correspondence between the two countries. It is a curious and apparently an inexplicable fact that, almost uniformly successful as has been our Government in its policy with European powers, in dealing with the United States it has ever shown lamentable weakness, and its attempts at diplomacy have resulted in ludicrous failures. In looking over historic records we are confronted with evidence that in every diplomatic game engaged in with the United States, the British ministries, holding the master-cards, have recklessly thrown them away or played into the hands of their opponents. To say nothing of the fatuous action of the British ministry in dealing with the colonies before the Revolution, when they made themselves the dupes of the very men whose business it was to further the conspiracy of rebellion: or the imbecile and half-hearted conduct of the campaign after the commencement of hostilities, when the "olive branch" was expected to play an equal part with the sword, and proclamations were held to be effective weapons against bullets: or the madness of the ministry in going to war with nearly all the states of Europe and antagonising the rest, at the very time when they were not only attempting to restore our supremacy in America, but were engaged in a struggle for empire in India.

To pass over these blunders and go on to a period some ten years after the close of the war. At that period Great Britain was in possession of a vast and valuable tract of land, of ill-defined boundaries lying between the late colonies and the Mississippi, and stretching through some twenty degrees of latitude from the border of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico. This territory had been ceded to Great Britain by France in 1763. It had never been a part of the British colonies, but by some imbecility of the ministry it had been ceded to them in the treaty of peace. But as it happened—it should have been fortunately—by a provision of this treaty this territory had been left in the possession of Great Britain in pledge for the performance of certain obligations imposed upon the colonies by its terms. It could have been honourably and lawfully retained permanently by Great Britain, for the United States had refused and neglected to perform these obligations, and, in fact, had no intention of performing them. By retaining it, the control of the Mississippi would have passed to Great Britain and the farther westward extension of the United States prevented. What did the ministry do? It made over the territory to the United States without any material compensation. That opportunity was lost, but another almost as favourable soon after presented itself. At any time from the year 1800, when the title of the Louisiana territory, or, rather, that part of it west of the Mississippi including New Orleans, passed again from Spain to France, and in 1803, when it was sold by the First Consul to the United States, it might have been ours for the asking. It lay at the mercy of the first British squadron that chose to anchor in the port of New Orleans. Had it been annexed it would have given Great Britain control of the mouth and the entire west bank of the Mississippi, and would have formed an impassable barrier to the westward march of the United States and confined them to a limited area on the Atlantic coast. The British ministry, in its wisdom, rather chose to see with indifference that immense empire pass into the hands of an implacable rival.

So that opportunity, too, was lost. But Providence vouchsafed still another. In the summer of 1812 was

begun a war forced by the United States upon Great Britain, at a time when she was engaged in a death struggle with the great military organisation built up by Napoleon; at a time when it seemed that the force of every power in Europe was about to be hurled against her. The grievance alleged as an excuse for this wanton attack by America upon England had little or no foundation in fact, and was one which the British Government had manifested the utmost willingness to remedy. The real object was the conquest of Canada, which was supposed to be an easy task, for Great Britain's empire was expected soon to fall to pieces under the crushing blows dealt by the great French captain.

Two years later the outlook had changed. The great military federation of Napoleon had broken up or turned its arms against him, and he himself was an exile in Elba. Great Britain was then the dominant power of the world, with its hands free to combat with all its mighty power its enemy across the ocean. It is no wonder, then, that the United States, which had not been able to hold their own when England's hands were tied, became alarmed for the outcome of the war they had so confidently entered into. Dreading the inauguration of a vigorous campaign, they hurriedly sought, through the mediation of the Emperor Alexander, to patch up a peace. Here was an opportunity for a diplomatic advantage to Great Britain. The ministry was in a position to dictate its own terms. The Americans, exhausted and discouraged, were clamouring for peace at any price. During hostilities the British troops had taken possession of the peninsula of Michigan. Had they insisted upon retaining this territory together with that part of Louisiana that lay to the west of it, no serious opposition would have been encountered from the American peace envoys. This acquisition would have given Great Britain the control of the upper Mississippi and Missouri and the immense territory stretching westward to the Rocky Mountains above the fortieth parallel.

The British Ministry did nothing of the kind. Instead, by the terms of the Treaty of Ghent, it restored to the United States all the territory it was possessed of prior to the war, excepting a tiny island off the coast of Maine. This it did, I suppose, as a reward for the United States' action in attacking England treacherously in the hour of her greatest need. For twenty years Great Britain had held possession of Florida, but had handed it back to Spain, and it was still held by that country when in 1811 President Madison sent a force to occupy it in defiance of the rights of a friendly state. Though Great Britain's interest in that country was second to Spain's, nothing was done by the ministry except to instruct our ambassador "solemnly to protest" against the invasion, though they could easily have prevented it, and either have occupied it for Great Britain or held it in trust for Spain.

Later still, when the backwoodsmen and border-ruffians, who with the connivance of the American Government had poured into Texas and set up a Government of their own, proposed to annex themselves to the United States, Lord Aberdeen again essayed to play the game of diplomacy with American politicians. His attempt began with a declaration that the institution of slavery was immoral, and that her Majesty's Government was very much opposed to it. He followed this up with the suggestion that it be a condition precedent to the annexation of Texas to the United States that slavery be declared unlawful in the former territory. The result of this remarkable announcement was hardly what was expected by its author. Lord Aberdeen's words were seized upon by the American Government as additional reason for haste in the matter, for, said Mr. Calhoun, in effect, if that is the way his lordship looks at it, we had better get the job over and done with. Accordingly, the project was at once carried out. After which it is pathetic to read Lord Aberdeen's lament, that "he could not say that this recommendation had been listened to with any degree of favour".

If you will suffer me, I will return to this question in another letter.

Yours faithfully,

ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

REVIEWS.

THE MASTERY OF THE PACIFIC.

"The Mastery of the Pacific." By A. R. Colquhoun. London: Heinemann. 1902. 18s.

MR. COLQUHOUN in his preface tells us that he "has long been a traveller in foreign lands and a student of foreign affairs". We believe him. With no dominion in the world is he less familiar than with the British Empire. In a book, which is practically a history of the Pacific, this is a grave defect; for the expansion of England is the main feature of the situation. To underrate it is to see the expansion of other Powers in false perspective, the result of which is that Mr. Colquhoun believes in the United States as "the dominant factor in the Mastery of the Pacific". His book, as a fact, conveys quite a different impression, so that this is a mere expression of opinion, which is suggestive of his mental attitude as a writer on the great question of the future. For, if there is one point more than another which Mr. Colquhoun brings out clearly, it is the failure of England's rivals to prove that they possess her genius for colonisation. In tropical countries she governs and the natives work in the interests of her commerce; in temperate regions she adds to her moral and material strength by building up young and vigorous communities with more than a fair measure of success. So far neither Germany nor the United States, her strongest commercial competitors, has shown any of this quality, though it is the one of all others which is absolutely necessary to supremacy in the world. Experience says it is inherent in a people; intellect says that it may be developed under State direction. Hence the struggle of the eighteenth century, which was decided in the Mediterranean and Atlantic, is being carried on in the twentieth in the Pacific. Mr. Colquhoun leans now to one side, now to the other. The expansion of Germany, Russia, and France he tests by well-known principles; the expansion of the United States he tests by what may be called the optimistic method. He argues that the problem of governing native races is new to her, and that whatever mistakes she has made were due to ignorance. But is this true? Her dealings with the Red Indian, the Indian of Alaska, and the Negro should have been a sound training for solving greater problems, had they been conceived in the right spirit.

The truth is the American has never shown any capacity for governing an inferior race. The reason is to be found partly in the Constitution, which we are told is "elastic", and partly in the character of the colonists who founded the Thirteen States. Canada, with no experience to guide her, has succeeded where her giant neighbour has, lamentably failed. Curiously enough Mr. Colquhoun himself suggests the chief weakness of America in her relations with native races: "Of high-sounding phrases and vague promises the Filipinos have had more than enough, and what was desired was a plain and precise engagement from the United States". True, and in connexion with the Indians, the same thing has been said of her for the past hundred years. That her intentions in the Philippines are excellent it is charitable not to doubt, but the point is are they wise? So far she has performed her task creditably, but it must be remembered, that American military rule is as just as American civil rule is corrupt. It is when the Filipinos are half educated, and their country the happy hunting-ground of the place-hunter that the real troubles of the United States will begin. In Atchin a war has been going on for the last thirty years, but it is paid for by the revenues of Java. The cost of war in the Philippines must always be paid by the American taxpayer. Moreover failure to keep order in his distant possession is certain to hamper his trade. Britain, alone of the Powers, has a clean record in her dealings with native races in the East Indies: which is one of the main causes of her commercial success.

That the "Mastery of the Pacific" is a book to be read may be admitted. It is packed with information acquired not only by diligent study but by close observation on the spot. Nothing could be better than the part devoted to the Dutch in the Far East: to the rise

of Japan : and to the United States in the Philippines. Russia and China are dismissed in a few paragraphs, and so is the potential importance of Germany and France. What Mr. Colquhoun has done is to give us a picture of the Pacific as it is now, and the struggle merely having begun the main outlines are obscured by details. The native races are interesting no doubt, but except in the Philippines and Java they have nothing to do with the mastery of the Pacific. The Chinese are on a different footing, but they are represented, not as a people, but as a factor in the labour problem. The truth is the time has not yet come for a clear view of the situation. China is a "dark horse", the precise part the Muscovite will play is uncertain, and Holland may give place to Germany. France might be forgotten were it not for her alliance with Russia. It is, however, well at this stage to know how the Powers stand towards one another, those which are likely to fall out of the struggle and the resources with which each enters on it. From this point of view Mr. Colquhoun's book is worthy of study.

The part which leaves something to be desired is Great Britain in the Pacific. Apparently the writer has not lived in Canada or Australia, and his knowledge of the development of the British Empire is superficial. He has no conception of it as a whole, which perhaps accounts for his inability to see its preponderating influence in the ocean of the future. For instance he talks of a possible "convergence of policy" between Australia and the United States as deserving of the deepest consideration both here and across the Atlantic. Not less amazing is his description of Australia as no "longer colonies with a distant Government to watch over their wider interests, but really, in every sense of the word a nation". As the obvious meaning of this is contradicted in the following paragraph, it is very evident that Mr. Colquhoun is as hazy in his views of the British Empire as he is clear in his views of the Far East. Surely he cannot have supposed that the Commonwealth Bill represented anything but a legislative union. Nevertheless he writes as though it were remarkable that there are many difficulties to be overcome before Australia develops into a nation, and of these he says the refusal of New Zealand to join her continental sister is the most serious! Even in a matter of fact he is uncertain. He tells us that the Hudson Bay Company came to grief over the Indian Question. When?

The Colonies will be surprised to hear that their "great need is forethought . . . which it is perhaps a little sanguine to expect from such young communities." The condescension here is magnificent. Hitherto it has always been supposed that it was in the home Government forethought was lacking, and that Colonies were given to the exasperating habit of thinking fifty years ahead. Now, if we are to take Mr. Colquhoun as a guide, we know better. It was not the Mother Country which was surprised in Venezuela, South Africa, and China; nor was it the Colonies which built the Canadian Pacific Railway to secure an outlet for the British Empire in the North Pacific, secured New Guinea at the gate of Australia, and offered to create a federation of South Sea Islands in 1857. That life is more strenuous in Australia than it is in England may be doubted, but what Mr. Colquhoun means when he writes of England as "thickly populated with a reserve stock constantly replenishing the cities" it is impossible to tell. Overgrown towns are not peculiar to Australia, or how is it that we complain so much of our deserted countryside?

It is, however, about Colonial loyalty that Mr. Colquhoun blunders most badly. He perceives that the advent of Russia on the Pacific littoral and the United States in the Philippines is "among the most significant features of the situation, which mark the beginning of the new century". But what he does not perceive is the world-wide significance of the solidarity of the British Empire on the battlefields of South Africa. He says truly that what is known as imperialism is too often mistaken for a sign of loyalty to the Mother Country. He, however, mistakes it for a tendency towards independence, and discounts its military expression in South Africa as voluntary rather than as dictated by "any considerations of obligation". Surely this is its glory, and it

does not necessarily follow that, because the Colonies of their own free will are giving aid to the Mother Country in South Africa, they are actuated merely by sentiment. As a matter of fact they recognise their obligations to Crown and Empire so clearly that they are prepared to share in the burden of Imperial defence, and it is in this spirit they have stood side-by-side with Great Britain before the Boer. Australia is not disloyal, says Mr. Colquhoun, and no doubt Australia will be flattered by the assurance, though she will be surprised to learn that she has "declared her intention of acting freely if generously towards the land which gave her birth". This is precisely what she has not done. Nor is she anxious to convince the world that her aid in South Africa was not a precedent. In truth the precedent is as old as British colonisation. During the past hundred years the Colonies have offered or given aid as often as there has been war. But to Mr. Colquhoun the part played by the Colonies in South Africa is an "incident", which has "called forth a torrent of sentimental gush". He does, however, admit that it is worthy of deep consideration, and affords much food for reflection to the thoughtful student of politics. It is a pity he did not take his own advice before he wrote the "Mastery of the Pacific".

OF LACE.

"History of Lace." By Mrs. Bury Palliser. Revised by M. Jourdain and Alice Dryden. London: Sampson Low. 1902. 42s. net.

COMPARED with the antiquity of embroidery, the sister art, lace-making is of no great age, four centuries at the most. According to Mrs. Palliser, the evidence is fairly conclusive as to its birthplace being in Italy, though whether at Venice or Genoa remains uncertain. At any rate by the end of the fifteenth century lace in its earliest form of "cut work" or "punto-a-reticella" was known throughout Italy and by the middle of the sixteenth that most magnificent of needle points, Gros-Point-de-Venise, had become a valued adjunct to both ecclesiastical and secular state, not only in Italy but also in France and England.

It is probably to Catherine de Médicis that the introduction of Italian points into Western Europe is due, and for her Vinciolo designed his famous pattern book, which not only incited Frenchwomen to learn the new art but introduced lacemaking to the thrifty Flemish burghers as a profitable industry. The taste for lace soon spread to England, Elizabeth herself giving large orders for "cut work" and the points of "Jeane and Venys". Within the next half-century, the Netherlands had learnt the art and Flemish points rivalled the finest Italian, both being the cause of a long series of edicts issued by the French and English Governments against the extravagant expenditure of Court and Church upon foreign wares. At last, Colbert, Louis XIV.'s minister of finance, realising the futility of prohibition, thought out a better plan for meeting the difficulty and by importing Italian lace-makers as instructors of the Frenchwomen, who already made a species of guipure, he succeeded in producing laces, which in time surpassed those made in Italy. The principal centre of the new trade was at Alençon and of all the French laces, Alençon, a needlepoint, has remained the finest in both design and workmanship. Owing to the king's desire to encourage his new industry, the wearing of lace became the fashion at the French Court, and thence spread throughout Europe, until men and women of all ranks were spending fortunes upon costly points, not only for their personal wear but for the trimming of bed-linen and furniture upon which the most valuable makes were freely lavished. By this time, the swifter and cheaper method of lace-making with bobbins had been discovered. Little definite concerning its origin is known, but the earliest mention of it discovered by Mrs. Palliser is in a pattern book of 1605, in which designs for "Pasement au Fusau", as it was called, are given. The new process spread quickly and attained great perfection as is proved by the beauty of such famous laces as those of Chantilly, Lille, Valenciennes, Mechlin, Point Duchesse and Honiton, all bobbin-made.

With the French Revolution the golden age of lace ended. The great nobles, whose luxury had fostered the art, were ruined, Europe during the following quarter-century was devastated by continual war, and when peace and prosperity were at last restored, fashions had altered and dress become simpler for both sexes. Napoleon made a vigorous attempt to revive the art in France and during the First Empire much was again produced, but after his fall it ceased to be fashionable and having at the same time to compete with the newly-invented machine-made net never quite regained its former prosperity. The English workers of Devonshire, Dorsetshire and the Midlands, whose lace, similar in character to that of Flanders and Lille, had commanded large prices during the eighteenth century, suffered equally from the same causes. In some districts lacemaking died out, in all it degenerated in quality and it is only within the last few years and owing to the efforts of various ladies interested in the industry that it has regained its former beauty and fine workmanship. Lately the wearing of lace has again become fashionable and in Alençon, Le Puy and the Netherlands the workers are in full employ, and it has even proved worth while to institute a new school at Burano for the making of needlepoints. In several parts of Ireland also the women have been taught the art and their work is good, in design and workmanship. Everywhere the wages earned are sufficient to increase materially the prosperity of the district and the lace produced is both well designed and made. But the invention of machine-made net and later the application of the Jacquard system to the net-frame by which a pattern can be woven has created a revolution in the lace trade and altered for ever the conditions of lace-making. Each year the machines have been improved until we have to-day lace so beautiful both in design and workmanship that no exception can be taken to it as an addition to woman's dress. It is not durable and it has not and never can have that exquisite texture, which the fine makes of real lace got from the best flax thread possess; neither has it the additional charm of all handwork, so difficult to describe, so easy to feel. But as an article of commerce handmade lace must, inevitably, fall before it. Probably the manufacture will linger on in those districts of Europe where living is cheap and interests few for yet another half-century. But, as the value of time grows greater among the peasantry of France, Flanders and Italy and with it their appreciation of the various interests brought within their reach by education and increased facilities of communication, so irksome an industry will cease to attract till, by sheer force of circumstances, a singularly beautiful art will disappear, crushed by the advance of civilisation, not the first nor probably the last thing of beauty to share that fate.

Mrs. Palliser's history has, for the last quarter of a century, been the most accessible and trustworthy in English and for this reason alone a new and revised edition is most welcome. Its editors have collected much fresh matter concerning the existing conditions of lace-making and have added some hundred new illustrations (mostly from admirable photographs by Miss Dryden). These have been so carefully chosen that the student will find himself supplied with the means of identifying most of the best known makes. (We think a good illustration of Torchon should have been included, for though a cheap lace, it is widely made and has a distinctive character of its own.) The portraits illustrating the wearing of lace are also a valuable addition and useful in fixing the approximate dates of the various makes, though seldom of their place of manufacture, for, throughout its existence, lace has been a marketable commodity in all lands. In their preface the editors speak of their reverence for the original text and of their desire to keep it intact so far as may be possible. Unfortunately they have been led thereby into an error, which is on every account to be regretted. Mrs. Palliser, a somewhat careless writer, made continual use of such words as "last century", "now", "modern", and these terms the revisers have left unqualified with dates, which would show whether the facts under consideration belonged to the eighteenth or nineteenth century, were of to-day or thirty years ago. In a history this is a fault and most

perplexing to the student. It is also unfair to themselves since very little of their new matter is dated, so that without reference to the third edition it is often impossible to distinguish between the "now" of 1902 and that of 1875. We feel also that in order to bring the book up to date the table given on page 257 concerning the number of lacemakers in France in 1851 and various other similar notes throughout the book should have been balanced by similar tables made out from the latest returns obtainable. In half a century, the lace trade has undergone many changes and as, according to the returns of the London Chamber of Commerce, our lace bill for 1899 was over one million, £909,917 of which was paid to France alone, lacemaking both by hand and machine must still employ a considerable number of women in that country, statistics concerning whose wages and habits would have been well worth including.

A FOURTEENTH CENTURY BOOK OF SAINTS.

"Nova Legenda Angliæ." Edited by C. Horstman. 2 vols. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1901. 36s. net.

IN the latter part of the Middle Ages there were three methods by which the English religious houses might augment the esteem in which they were held and the wealth with which it was rewarded. Their austerity might correspond to the spirit of the rule under which they lived; but this, though doubtless true of a number of houses of every order, was exceptional, and only on behalf of one whole society, that of the Carthusians, could the claim to consistency be advanced. Or their church might become the burial-place of some great family, with consequent advantage to themselves; but in spite of the eagerness of the monks—the highway robbery of a noble corpse was once attempted on behalf of the Cistercians of Warden—the friars were more successful in this respect than they. The third resource was the saints connected with the monastery. Here the old Benedictines could fear no competition. The reformed congregations, Cluniacs, Cistercians and the rest, the ruins of whose homes are so venerable to us, had no roots in the past history of England, and were modern in comparison with Canterbury or Glastonbury, S. Albans or Ely. Their very existence was a reproof to the heirs of the older tradition. After the Conquest few founders had confidence in monasticism of the ancient type; the piety of the age would not be satisfied with so easy an observance of the Benedictine rule, and though no one thought to disturb them it was as unlikely that the number of such houses should increase as that a new guild should be endowed to-day in the City of London. But as time went on the younger orders fell, with increasing wealth, to the same spiritual level as their older rivals, and then was seen the power of venerable associations. The monasteries which possessed in their shrines the objects of national, or at least local, reverence resumed their superiority. The old Benedictines never incurred such unpopularity as their richest and most vigorous competitors, the Cistercians, and when the general downfall came no religious houses were so deeply regretted as those which had guarded the remains of the old English saints.

The Benedictines boasted in the seventeenth century that their order could rely on the suffrages of 55,000 saints. The number may be exaggerated, but it gives a true impression of the multitude of early ascetics and of the miscellaneous claimants, ranging from martyrs to christianised heroes of fairy tales, to the honours of sainthood. The English contingent to the host may be estimated by a little pilgrim's guide, written soon after the year 1000, of which two or three editions, in Latin and Anglo-Saxon, have survived. It is incomplete, and capricious in its omissions both of names and places; but if Thorney, an abbey which never rose above the second rank, could boast of Botulf and Athulf, of Huna and Thancred and Torhtred, of Hereferth and Benedict and Cissa, we may be sure that the great monasteries were richer still and that the aggregate number of

saints venerated in obscurer sanctuaries was immense. But a process of concentration was constantly going on. The great houses strove assiduously to augment their treasures, and were the more successful that these had a diminishing value to their original owners. The *Nova Legenda* furnishes an instance in S. Jurminius, or Eormenwine, of Blythburgh, from whom the Jermyns of Suffolk derive their name. S. Edmund, though his abbey lay far inland, came to be a favourite invocation among seafaring men, and the obscure coastland saint, unable to compete with the martyred king, had to suffer translation that he might increase the glories of Bury S. Edmunds. Or relics might be bought, as were those of the Dutch S. Odolph, stolen from Stavoren in the days of Canute and purchased for Evesham for £100; the same price was paid by the nuns of Wilton for the Breton S. Ivy, or Ywius, whose name still clings to the scanty ruins of Ivychurch Priory, near Salisbury, though its visitors are apt to derive the name from the drapery of the walls. S. Osyth's, in Essex, gained a new name and an added glory more cheaply; a local blacksmith, in obedience to a vision, stole the saint from Aylesbury, and with the consent of the Bishop of London she was installed in her new home.

Thus in one way or another the saints came to be connected with a comparatively small number of religious houses, and it is the merit of John of Tynemouth, the author of the *Nova Legenda*, or, as he called it, the *Sanctilogium*, that by collecting the traditions of many of these he has rescued a multitude of histories, or of legends, from oblivion. Writing, as he did, early in the fourteenth century, he escaped the swift decay which was soon to destroy the intellectual life of English monasticism, and nowhere more completely than in his own S. Albans, yet lived late enough to command the whole material of his subject. From the eleventh century to the thirteenth every church of importance had been busy first in discovering, and then in translating, the remains of its saints, and each time their story had grown more wonderful. By the time of John of Tynemouth the process was almost finished, and the store of Celtic legends, which the successive conquests of South Wales and of Ireland had brought to English knowledge, was also complete. For these, for the great historical saints from Augustine to Edmund of Canterbury, and for the record of many humbler lives, often of great beauty, lived in what were then modern times, he drew upon the library of S. Albans, where he found Bede and such standard biographers as Goscelin and Eadmer. He abbreviates their work, without omitting much that is of interest, and thus a great part of his volumes has no other merit than that of a convenient repertory of information accessible elsewhere. But the case is different when he draws upon his own researches, made in long journeys undertaken for the purpose, though there was unhappily a great part of England he failed to traverse. Shaftesbury and Abingdon, for instance, houses which had an ample store of legend, contribute nothing to his collection; and his westward journeys did not extend to Devon or Cornwall. S. Sidwell of Exeter, whose marvellous story would have been thoroughly to his taste, is omitted, though her sister, S. Juthwara of Sherborne, with an unpleasant history, is duly entered, because the author had visited that abbey and its neighbours of Glastonbury and Cerne. It is from immemorial houses such as these that he draws his most precious information. Sometimes he excerpts the written lives of saints unknown beyond their home; sometimes he retails the oral tradition of the monks. Thus he found at Cerne a local application, connected with S. Augustine, of the calumny that Englishmen have tails. It was certainly not by his own wish that John of Tynemouth failed to complete his visitation of the old Benedictine houses. But his treatment of their later rivals is so slight that his silence is obviously deliberate. He gives the lives of two or three early and austere Cistercians; he might have increased the number at will. He knew Sherborne well, and retails its trivialities. But the one glory of the abbey, Stephen Harding, the monk who left it in search of a stricter life to become the founder of Cîteaux and, next to S. Bernard, the greatest of the early Cistercians, is omitted.

Yet, with all its omissions, this great record of the

English saints, the earliest Dictionary of National Biography, is a marvellous achievement. In its final form it contains some 180 lives, for many of which it is, wholly or in part, the sole authority. And it is no dry compilation. The author was credulous, even for his age, and deeply interested in the supernatural. The Purgatory of S. Patrick, the Vision of Tundal, the noble legend of S. Brendan, worthy in parts of the *Odyssey* and in parts of the *Divina Commedia*, may be found in his pages. Miracles, of course, abound, but though staffs sprout into leaf, and springs flow at a stroke, and martyrs carry their heads in their hands with a curious iteration, the recital does not become monotonous. In the later records we can trace the manufacture of miracle. With a perfect intellectual honesty, like that of a schoolboy in trouble with his sum, who uses a gentle violence to his figures to bring out a conclusion which he knows is correct, the monks asserted that their saint had done what they were convinced it was in his power to do; and we may read how amply they were rewarded with genuine testimonials, strangely like those by which a patent medicine is accredited to-day.

We cannot speak of the author, the historiographer of S. Albans to whom the editor has restored his honours, of the history of the book, of the present edition, hurried into the world without an index and with but the fragment of what should have been a most valuable introduction. All who would refresh their interest in the Middle Ages should read these biographies, which will bring before them, in the easiest of Latin and the most naïve of styles, every aspect of a life and thought which was often puerile and sometimes gross, but was full also of high aims and great achievements in action and character.

A WORTHLESS CRITIC OF FILIPPO LIPPI.

"Fra Filippo Lippi." By Edward C. Strutt. London: Bell. 1901. 5s. net.

THE author states his position in his preface. It is one of direct antagonism to "scientific criticism" "whose intransigent votary, when he undertakes to describe one of the beautiful flowers which blossom in the garden of Art, usually proceeds to tear the delicate petals to pieces, dissects and analyses their component parts, then proudly embodies the result of his laborious investigations in a bulky volume". There is no hint of what author is envisaged here but one English writer has perhaps been more associated with this scientific criticism than any other, namely Mr. Berenson. When we turn to Mr. Strutt's book after this high-sounding preface, it is therefore not a little surprising to find it studded with "tactile values" "functional lines" and other of Mr. Berenson's phrases. The defence would doubtless be that they are employed with a thoroughly unscientific inaccuracy and indeed with scarcely any idea of their meaning. Mr. Strutt might have spared us his preface, the book itself is enough to convince us of his want of science, of his ignorance of the most elementary and the most important facts about his subject. Let us take an example. If there is one picture which more than any other throws a light on the origins of Filippo Lippi's style, it is his earliest known work the elaborate tondo of the "Adoration of the Magi" in Sir Frederick Cook's collection at Richmond. Mr. Strutt, though he puts it in his catalogue, (it figures by the by in Mr. Berenson's lists) has clearly not taken the trouble to see this, but has convinced himself that it is none other than the tondo of the same subject in the National Gallery by Botticelli. This he boldly describes and reproduces as a Filippo Lippi, but even he is struck by its unlikeness to Lippi's other work and, not to be abashed, assumes the assistance of Pesellino. It need hardly be said that the parts he ascribes to Pesellino bear no more resemblance to that artist's work than the whole picture does to Filippo Lippi's. The book is filled with similar blunders though none quite so amazing or so easily traced as this. Thus he gives as Lippi's work with the assistance of Giovanni da Rovizzano a "S. Jerome" in the Academy which has nothing to do with Lippi. He gives a number of pieces in the Prato Gallery

by Lippi's scholars to the master himself, and solemnly adds that he has come to the conclusion that the "Nativity" in the Louvre, which belongs to the school of Pesellino, is by Fra Diamante, about whom he evidently has no real knowledge. The "Madonna of the Innocenti" he takes for a first idea of Lippi's "Madonna at the window" in the Uffizi, though it is clearly a later imitation of that work by another hand. He even misreads the legend of the S. Ambrogio altarpiece and accuses Lippi of the blunder "is pereegit opus" while the correct form "is perfectit opus" is legible even in his reproduction. Having omitted to study such important works as Sir F. Cook's tondo and the two fine examples in Lord Brownlow's collection, which lay near at hand, he fills up the book with reproductions of works which have no kind of connexion with Lippi whatever.

It will be seen that Mr. Strutt has fully qualified himself as unscientific; how then about the æsthetic qualities which according to him only blossom when the blighting influence of scientific accuracy is removed? The following is typical. He knows that all writers since Vasari have declared that Lippi studied Masaccio, he wishes to point out the effects of this influence: he finds that Lippi's hands have always been considered faulty, he thinks that the feet of Masaccio's "Adam and Eve" are "monstrous" and ill drawn, which, by the by, they are not, and thus he establishes Masaccio's influence on Lippi. But indeed there is no single phrase in the book which would indicate that our author's æsthetic perceptions are developed in proportion to his ignorance. We are by now accustomed to ignorance and incapacity in such popular art handbooks but what is new here is the pretentious and dogmatic tone which the author adopts. "After careful study I have come to the conclusion", "I am convinced" and so forth. As though it mattered!

NOVELS.

"Mr. Horrocks: Purser." By C. J. Cutcliffe Hyne. London: Methuen. 1902. 6s.

The semi-detached story has doubtless its advantages in a hurried age, for the reader of popular magazines can believe that in any of its sections he has a complete work of fiction, whereas that comparatively rare bird, the book-buyer, can be persuaded that in the completed series he will possess a finished romance. But your Mulvaney and Sherlock Holmeses and Captain Kettles and the like are not quite up to the strain of periodical reincarnations, and we doubt whether certain authors' desire to make the best of both worlds, the magazine and the book, is entirely laudable. The products are of a somewhat mongrel type. In the present volume Mr. Hyne has included six episodes of the career of Mr. Horrocks, Purser on an Atlantic line, with one stray chapter of Captain Kettle's exploits, and ten separate short stories of varying merit and Kiplingesque inspiration. Mr. Horrocks is a genial and tactful rogue of good character who, as we must submit to be told afresh in every chapter, runs an orphanage on shore with the more or less legitimate "pickings" of his professional voyages. Mr. Hyne has a lively invention, and the Purser's experiences are not unamusing. The other stories deal chiefly with tramp steamers, but Mr. Hyne is at a higher level when he touches life in West Africa, which he describes with real skill. Salvage as a literary theme becomes monotonous. From careful study we are convinced that the greater part of this book must have been already published piecemeal, and our conviction is strengthened by the fact that we have read most of it before.

"Woman and Moses." By Lucas Cleeve. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1902. 6s.

It seems a little unfair, in view of the higher criticism, to take liberties with the name of Moses in an essay on matrimonial complications. A more fitting title, were it inappropriate, would be "Autour du Divorce", but Mr. Cleeve has not the light touch of Gyp. The work is, in fact, a little tedious, and its excellent moral—the doctrine that even he

who is not a bishop should be the husband of one wife—might perhaps have been enforced by the medium of less repellent characters. The most agreeable figure in the novel is a completely reckless and feather-headed woman sobered into a paragon of virtue by divorce. Her friend, a young girl of blameless character and lofty aspirations, marries the husband and maintains excellent relations with the wife. And yet somehow they are not happy! Mr. Cleeve moralises beyond his custom, and is not very exhilarating in the pulpit. The book is an honest attempt to deal with an important social question, but the persons are too obviously lay figures. They are not very interesting in themselves, they are certainly not typical men and women, and their careers serve rather to depress than to edify.

"High Treason: a Romance of the Days of George the Second." London: John Murray. 1902. 6s.

The days when the Stuart princes still lived in hopes have afforded materials to many tale-tellers, and the anonymous author of "High Treason" goes to this period for the incidents of his romantic love story. Philip Selwyn, a cousin of George Selwyn the celebrated wit, had a strange [experience in an inn on the Dover road in 1744, when called upon to identify a young lady whom he had never seen before; he was, of course, equal to the occasion, and readily followed it up by performing a small, and, though he knew it not, treasonable service for the mysterious Sophia Preston. From this incident and a subsequent rencontre at Ranelagh sprang a series of adventures which led Philip to extend hospitality (at first unwittingly) to the exiled Charles Edward, to aid in his escape (at the cost of a man's life), to stand his trial at Newgate for manslaughter, to imprisonment in the Tower on the charge of high treason, and finally to his wedding being arranged for him and to the story ending with an unconventional wedding breakfast in an inn on the north road. The story is pleasant, and, if by a new writer, promising. It is not remarkable.

"King Stork of the Netherlands." By Albert Lee. London: Jarrold. 1901. 6s.

This is "a romance of the early days of the Dutch Republic", wherein William the Silent is the immaculate but not very prudent hero, and the Duke of Anjou King Stork. Why a respectable bird like a stork should be compared with the miscreant that Mr. Lee makes of Anjou is not clear: the excuse of the old fable will hardly serve, for no one would describe Philip of Spain or Alva as "King Log". The author is painstaking, and has turned out a creditable book for boys of the adventure school, with Familiars of the Inquisition and other horrors confronted by a stout-armed rather dull and very virtuous youth who tells the story. We hold it a mistake that stories of this kind should be written in a hybrid between modern and archaic English. If an author can write Elizabethan English, well and good, but the compromising style that will not deter the crowd and yet parades a semblance of age merely serves to remind that the persons of the book spoke in Dutch or Flemish. Mr. Lee makes very little attempt at character, but gives plenty of incident.

"The Story of Teresa." By Anne Macdonell. London: Methuen. 1902. 6s.

This book is less like a finished novel than a mass of literary material prematurely solidified at a confused and inorganic stage. It picks up the heroine at the point where she is just emerging from one of the most necessitous periods of a Bohemian career into the prosperous if somewhat incongruous position of village nursing sister, and carries her, after various tossings in this eddy, out into the world again under new auspices. There is a curious lack of clearness and reality about most of the characters, not excluding Teresa herself; if not totally unfamiliar and unconvincing, they are shadow-shapes that move in a blurred atmosphere of prolixity and monotonously unvarying emphasis. But the writer has a heart in her work which gives even the most inconsequential of her figures some semblance of planet-struck vitality, while

there are occasional flashes of force and insight, and passages of real and refreshing humour. The book demands a reader of somewhat resolute fibre, and one, too, who is willing to put in the lights and shades for himself; but it is far from commonplace.

"The Land of the Lost: a Tale of the New Zealand Gum Country." By William Satchell. London: Methuen. 1902. 6s.

There is always a certain interest attaching to stories of colonial life written with fulness of knowledge, and more especially when to the knowledge is added some measure of literary ability. Mr. Satchell's romance of the gum country is attractive not so much for its incidents, which are more or less variants of the stock episodes of the adventure story, as for the capital way in which he describes the tract of country where the scenes of his tale are placed—that "land of the lost" where human failures of all classes seek for gum where the fallen kauri forests of a bygone age have rotted underground. Apart from its local colour it is a pretty romance in which vice and virtue finally meet with their fitting rewards.

"Out of the Cypress Swamp." By Edith Rickert. London: Methuen. 1902. 6s.

This is a rousing story of life and adventure in the United States of nearly a century ago, with as much of incident and horror as mixed blood and physical atavism, roving piracy and war with England can supply. On the whole it is a workmanlike narrative; there are several vivid scenes and many truthful flashes of character. The writer can trace the working of normal motives in an abnormal environment without ceasing to be human and vigorous.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"The Problem of Shakespeare's Plays." By G. C. Bompas. London: Sampson Low, Marston. 1902. 3s. 6d. net.

Mr. Bompas is an intense Baconian in the Shakespeare v. Bacon controversy, and in this volume he piles up evidence against Shakespeare. He does not attempt or affect to see more than one side. As a result many of his arguments are "pour rire" indeed. For instance we have this sort of syllogism: Shakespeare the man was much inclined to usury; usury is condemned in the "Merchant of Venice"; which helps to show that the plays were not written by Shakespeare. By the way Mr. Bompas gives Shakespeare the e in "Shakespeare's Plays" and takes it away from Shakespeare without the plays—thus, Shakspeare. He does not tell us why. It seems not much wiser than writing, say, "Izaak Walton's 'Compleat Angler'" but "Isaac Walton". Mr. Bompas quotes from an article in one of the quarterlies on Shakespeare and Nature, his object being to show, amongst other things, that the fauna of Stratford-on-Avon is not represented in the plays as it would be if a Stratford-on-Avon man had written them. Surely the blackbird is there and the crow: he seems to think the nightjar should be in the plays, and the kingfisher; does he not know that the nightjar and the kingfisher are widely distributed through the country, as also the water-rat—we prefer vole, but perhaps Mr. Bompas and the reviewer he quotes think that a little matter—and the otter? Of Shakespeare's thirty-three flowers, Bacon enumerates thirty. Mr. Bompas reminds us, in his essay on "Gardens" and "Sylvia Sylvarum": and that is one of the things that make Mr. Bompas suspicious! Further, we have a number of quotations to convince us that Shakespeare was inaccurate, a mere book-naturalist. Mr. Bompas neglects anything that tells the other way. Why did he not remind us that the great flower passage in "The Winter's Tale" is much more accurate than the scarcely less famous passage in Milton?

"Domestic Economy in Theory and Practice." By Marion Greenwood Bidder and Florence Baddeley. Cambridge: at the University Press. 1901. 4s. 6d.

This strikes us as a sound and useful book. Most people drift into matrimony and housekeeping without the faintest notion in the world of domestic economy, or of economy indeed in any sense. We would almost recommend this book as a wedding present. It—if ever looked into—might prove a good deal more serviceable than silver salt cellars—out of which the salt constantly has to be taken lest it spoil the silver—or the lesser gewgaws which make the house unbecomingly and are lurking places for untold quantities of microbes. Though, by the way, the microbe is not so bad as he is painted. Out of doors he is active in the making of successful hay: indoors he is important in brewing in the formation of vinegar and of yeast.

However: "In fresh milk bacteria are always present, but they may be regarded as an unmixed evil".

"Denmark, Past and Present." By Margaret Thomas. London: Treherne. 6s. net.

Miss Thomas had an opportunity in this book which she has not wholly missed but of which she has not made the most. Denmark is so out of the beaten track of the tourist that it has not been written about to the extent most countries have; yet it is a very interesting land; and its people, their traditions, their customs, their superstitions, are well worth study. Especially should that study have attractions for a people whose Queen is a daughter of Denmark. The book will be read, and its reading will be neither unprofitable nor unenjoyable, but the work is tantalisingly unequal. Its history is poor, and its descriptive pages alternate between a Baedeker-like precision and a picturesqueness which shows that Miss Thomas has imagination. She appears to know Denmark, thoroughly, and her book should be of service to anyone who is thinking of paying that country a visit.

"The Journal of the South-Eastern Agricultural College, Wye, Kent." London and Ashford: Headley. 1902. 1s.

This is the second number of the journal produced by Mr. A. D. Hall and his staff at Wye College. It contains contributions on Experiments upon Hops at Wye in 1901 by Mr. Hall, Notes on Economic Entomology by Mr. F. V. Theobald, Notes and Observations on Plant Diseases by Mr. J. Percival and various other interesting and useful matter. Some curious experiments have been carried on at Goudhurst by the College in the direction of growing hops without doing anything more for them than light hoeing. The uncultivated hops did practically as well as the cultivated! But we believe that this is not by any means the sole instance of the kind. Some hops have grown capably at Dartford for many years, though in this case absolutely nothing has been done in the way of cultivation. Of course it is largely a matter of soil.

"Our Irish Song Birds." By the Rev. Charles William Benson. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis & Co. 1901. 5s. net.

We are glad to see this capital little handbook of Irish song-birds has reached a second edition: it deserved to. Mr. Benson's book reminds us a little of Adams' charming little volume, now we fancy almost entirely overlooked. It contains a good deal of original information, and it is clear that the late headmaster of Rathmines has watched his birds long and closely. He is as a rule very accurate, though we do not think that the spelling out of birds' notes, which he in common with many other writers is fond of attempting, is much of a success. This little book may be placed on a shelf within easy reach near the works of Adams and of our old friend Canon Atkinson.

"The Chartreuse of Parma." Translated by Lady Mary Lloyd. London: Heinemann. 1902. 7s. 6d.

Mr. Heinemann has done well to include De Stendhal's masterpiece in his "Century of French Romance". The translation seems to be well and carefully done and the whole appearance of the book as well as the illustrations reflect credit on the publisher. De Stendhal's own prediction of his posthumous reputation was verified almost to the letter and he has become the father of the modern naturalist school though many of his followers have not bettered his instruction by their extravagances. Mr. Hewlett's introduction strikes straight at the author's vital characteristics "love of adventure, quickness of dramatic scene, and feeling for atmosphere". Where could we find a more vivid painting than the description in this book of a small Italian Court at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and what hero even in Dumas has more thrilling adventures than Fabrice? Lovers both of the romantic and the analytic novel will find something to satisfy them here.

"Mauprat." Translated from the French of George Sand by Stanley Young. With a Critical Introduction by John Oliver Hobbes. ("A Century of French Romance.") London: Heinemann. 1902. 7s. 6d.

No greater contrast is conceivable than that between the second and third volumes of this series of French Romance, between the exquisite, fastidious, frigid little stories of Mérimée and the impetuous, exuberant, sentimental romance of George Sand. To enjoy Mérimée one must be an artist, to enjoy George Sand one need only be a student. Beside her magnificence Mérimée seems slender and cold; beside his perfect symmetry George Sand seems formless and extravagant. Her works are colossal endeavours; his, delicate achievements. He handles his subject like a craftsman, she is possessed by hers like a prophet. She is by turns splendid and dreary, engrossing and tiresome, admirable and ridiculous. To a sane and healthy intellect of singular capacity and virile strength, were united in her a feminine purity and elevation of tone, a genuine enthusiasm for ideals, and an extraordinary ecstatic glow of feeling with which the generosity of her temperament clothed the creations of her abundant fancy. She possessed naturally a rich and beautiful style, always dignified, fluent, and vivid; there is not a trace of effort in it or of conscious arrangement, yet its variety prevents fatigue,

and its even excellence excites admiration, when the subject-matter has ceased to excite interest. She is an artist in effects, but not in construction. The magnificence of design opened out at the beginning of each novel, the fascination of the curiously realistic and yet unreal worlds of sentiment, and heroic endeavour into which she sets us down with so firm a hand, all fade away, and before we are half through our amazement and delight are replaced by irritation and ennui. George Sand was so in love with her own creations, that she could not conceive the possibility of their ever becoming tiresome. Her marvellous fertility and fluency prevented her stopping to examine her work, to check her inspiration would have seemed to her a treachery to her ideals, a betrayal of a sacred mission. She took herself and her theories perfectly seriously, and there lay the secret of her strength. She had scarcely any sense of humour, or she could never have written "Consuelo" and its sequel, or "Mauprat" though it is far less disproportionate, or any other of the superb absurdities which she produced with such amazing fecundity.

ERRATUM—"The Westminster Biographies" are published by Messrs. Kegan Paul and Company, and not by Messrs. Constable and Company as we stated last week.

SIX MONTHS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE.

The fiction of the last six months has come largely from practised hands, although not a few young writers are now serving their apprenticeship to this popular art. Mr. Cable has not, of late years, repeated his early successes, and the announcement that he was engaged in writing a long story awakened an anxiety which was happily removed when "The Cavalier" appeared. The novelist had returned to the field which he knew intimately and to the life which he had described with sensitive skill and great charm, not only of manner but of feeling. The new story is both adventurous and romantic; an intimate chapter taken from the unwritten records of the Civil War and presented with Mr. Cable's old-time delicacy, refinement and vividness of touch. The movement is rapid and at times not quite clear by reason of the profusion of incident; but the narrative is full of vivacity and picturesqueness. Dr. Henry van Dyke has taken a long step forward in his art and in popular favour by the publication of his first volume of short stories, "The Ruling Passion"; a group of dramatic sketches chiefly of French-Canadian guides, hunters, and villagers, full of vitality, colour and feeling. This volume is in striking contrast with a good deal of contemporary American fiction in its breadth of manner, spontaneity of feeling and direct dealing with primary motives and emotions.

At the farthest possible remove from Dr. van Dyke's direct, virile, simple manner is Mrs. Edith Wharton's "Valley of Decision"; a novel of conspicuous ability and marked individuality of style. This is Mrs. Wharton's third volume and her first elaborate work of fiction. She has found her own style after a period of imitativeness which was in no sense servile, but which prevented a free and characteristic expression of her great talent. That style is vitally related to her themes and her temperament. She is drawn to the secondary motives, the complex problems of character and experience, and she has keen insight, a sensitive imagination and a style delicate enough to receive and convey elusive qualities, subtle confusions of motive and nice shadings of character. As a study of Italian society on the verge of the Revolution "The Valley of Decision" is deeply interesting; as a study of a temperament it is both sympathetic and judicial. Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's new story, "Circumstance," is an excellent example of the novel of character and manners in a period which delights in an historical background, a romantic situation or a series of adventurous episodes. This study of domestic life is quiet in tone, nice in workmanship and full of the knowledge of life. Dr. Mitchell's work shows a steady ripening of the faculties which give the novelist insight, sanity of judgment, largeness of sympathy and soundness of style.

New England is always in evidence in American fiction, and neither Miss Jowett nor Miss Wilkins shows any signs of fading interest in a background of social life which both have brought before the imagination again and again with that freshness which comes from intimate knowledge and quick sympathy. In "The Tory Lover" Miss Jowett puts boldly to sea with Captain John Paul Jones and tells a stirring story, full of action and incident quite out of her customary field; but the starting-point of the novel is one of the most attractive homes of the colonial period, and the group of adventurers are typical New England characters of the Revolutionary period. "The Tory Lover" is written with care and with a skill born of long and loving practice, but Miss Jowett is not at her best in a novel of incident; she is a born painter of the quiet life.

Miss Wilkins' "Portion of Labor" brings clearly before the imagination the form of life which factory labour impresses on its operatives and the attitude of mind which it breeds in them. It is the story of a young girl who is of finer fibre and higher organisation than her class, and it reaches a dramatic climax in a strike which she foments. As the protagonist of this

drama of the struggle between those who work with money and those who work with their hands this girl seems somewhat vague and thin; but her shrill and hysterical kin are drawn to the life. Miss Mary Johnston's "Audrey" is being very widely read and shows a distinct advance on her earlier stories. It has a touch of the historic in the introduction of a few real personages, but it is not a semi-historic novel of the conventional sort. It is a study of manners in the old colonial capital of Virginia, and it is by no means lacking in incident; but it has more solidity and reality than "Prisoners of Hope" or "To Have and To Hold". The style is picturesque and effective, and the defects of story inhere in its material rather than its treatment. Mr. Herrick's "Web of Life" and Mr. Hodder's "New Americans" are examples of the careful, analytic, somewhat hard style of a group of younger writers of fiction whose conscientious study and exacting sense of form are likely to produce work of vital quality when a longer experience has brought them into closer and more sympathetic touch with the society about them. A story written with a freer hand and with more freshness of feeling is Mr. S. E. White's "The Westerners".

The interest in historical and biographical study, so marked of late years, has borne fruit during the past season in several volumes of importance and, in one instance at least, of permanent value. The death of Mr. Horace E. Scudder involves a loss to American literary scholarship which is emphasised by the admirable qualities of his "Life of James Russell Lowell"; a biography which as we pointed out in a long review in our issue of 4 January shows high intelligence, sound taste and excellent workmanship. Mr. Scudder had served a long apprenticeship to the craft which he loved for its own sake, and followed with exacting conscience and with tireless industry. Although not a man of brilliant parts, he brought to his work a vigorous intellect, independence of judgment, a charming humour and a lucid and agreeable style. As the editor of "The Atlantic Monthly" he maintained the traditions of a magazine which has stood for the highest standards of workmanship and drawn to its support nearly all the foremost American writers. Despite recurring illnesses of a severe kind Mr. Scudder resolutely kept at work and brought the biography to an end, in the face of great difficulties, only a few months before his death. He was exceptionally well qualified for the task of writing Lowell's life; for he was long a neighbour of the poet and diplomatist, was bred under the same traditions, and was in close touch with the men of Lowell's generation. Mr. John Codman's study, "Arnold's Expedition to Quebec", is not only a very good example of historical narrative, but throws new light on the attitude of the people of Canada to the Mother Country at a time when the Southern colonies were on the verge of revolt. The grave questions of foreign policy with which the United States is now dealing give special interest to Professor A. B. Hart's "Foundations of American Diplomacy", an outline sketch of the development and course of the diplomacy of the Government with reference to extension of territory.

Two autobiographies have been widely read during the past season and are likely to be read for many seasons to come, not only by reason of their intrinsic interest but because they bring into view some of the most characteristic features of American life. Mr. Booker T. Washington's "Up from Slavery" is an "Arabian Nights" tale of actual achievement; the story of a man born in a slave cabin, in dense ignorance of the elementary customs and habits which were familiar to even the poorest class of whites, who secures educational opportunities, founds a large and eminently useful institution for the practical education of his people, and gains a position of exceptional influence and dignity in the country at large. This story of the rise of a man by his own efforts is admirably supplemented by Mr. Jacob A. Riis' "The Making of an American"; a frank, ingenuous and entertaining record of the career of a boy who comes to the U.S. from Denmark without friends or money, has all manner of adventures in search of work, and ultimately makes a position for himself which justifies President Roosevelt's description of him as probably "the most useful citizen of New York". Neither of these books belongs to literature so far as form is concerned, but both are to be counted among the books which are likely to live long by reason of the vitality with which they are charged. They are to be specially commended to those readers in England and on the Continent who wish to understand the spirit of American life.

Among works of distinctively literary interest a first place must be given to Mr. W. C. Brownell's "Victorian Prose Masters"; a collection of critical studies of Carlyle, Ruskin, Arnold, George Meredith, George Eliot and Thackeray, notable for searching analysis, for insight into temperament, and for powerful exposition of methods. Mr. Brownell's style is somewhat lacking in ease and freedom, but it is vigorous, exact and subtle in resource in description and discrimination. The death of Dr. Charles C. Everett, Dean of the Harvard Divinity School, has been followed by the publication of a posthumous volume of "Essays Theological and Literary", characterised by ripe judgment, wide knowledge and critical insight. Dr. Everett's love of literature led him into many fields, but he kept a

notable sanity of taste and sound sense of literary values in his discursive studies. Mr. Howells' "Heroines of Fiction" must be placed among books of criticism. It is, primarily, a series of studies of the women who form the central figures in the great works of fiction, and it is full of the charm, the refinement of mind, the quiet humour and the distinction which Mr. Howells has at command in his more fortunate hours; but it contains incidentally a great deal of literary comment. Professor Colvin Thomas' elaborate biographical and critical study of Schiller must be counted among the important contributions to the literature of biography. It is based on first-hand study and is fresh, vigorous and, at times, unconventional in style.

There has been unusual activity among the verse writers during the past season and there are distinct signs of promise in this field; but the publications of importance have been few. Mr. Stedman's ode read at the two hundredth anniversary of the founding of Yale University has been published under the title "Mater Coronata", and is a good example of academic verse; elevated, dignified, with breadth of idea and a manner quite in harmony with the theme. Mr. Santayana, who teaches psychology at Harvard University, has published both prose and verse of unusual but somewhat elusive quality. His latest volume, "The Hermit of Carmel and Other Poems", shows sensibility and sensitive craftsmanship, but gives no indication of growth in poetic power. Mr. Markham's "Lincoln and Other Poems" on the other hand, while not free from the crudities of his earlier work, registers a distinct advance in artistic feeling and skill. Lovers of the drama will find many distinctively feminine touches in Miss Peabody's "Marlowe" and not a little audacity, but they will also find some fresh and charming lines and a good deal of lyrical beauty. Mr. Gilder reveals no accession of poetical strength in his "Inscriptions and Other Verses", but the publication of the series of inscriptions prepared for the Pan-American Fair, held at Buffalo last summer, furnishes the opportunity of enjoying in a more leisurely way a group of phrases notable for condensed expressiveness.

SPANISH LITERATURE.

Historia de España y de la Civilización española. Por Rafael Altamira y Crevea. Tomo II. Barcelona: Juan Gili. 1902. 6 Ptas.

According to the original intention of the writer and his publisher, this second volume of Sr. Altamira y Crevea's remarkable history should conclude the work, but it will surprise no one to learn that it has proved impossible to keep within the proposed limit. Readers of the first part, which dealt minutely with the primitive period, were quick to perceive the necessity of enlarging the scale, if a proper balance were to be obtained, and Sr. Altamira, though he seems to have yielded with reluctance, was well advised in accepting the advice tendered to him by the best authorities. Hence we must await the publication in the third volume of that full bibliographical apparatus to which students of Spanish history have looked forward, and which is tolerably certain to prove invaluable if it corresponds fully to the text. For it is no exaggeration to say that Sr. Altamira's work denotes the opening of a new period in Spanish historical studies. Investigators like Costa, Fidel Fita, Azcárate, Hinojosa and others have produced an abundance of brilliant monographs on particular periods, themes or incidents of history; but, if we except the tedious and antiquated work of Modesto Lafuente, there has been no serious attempt to supply the student with a general sketch. This has now been done by Sr. Altamira in a manner that amply justifies his high reputation. Within a moderate compass, he has endeavoured to do for Spain what Green did for England, and his attempt is singularly successful. The performance is all the more praiseworthy inasmuch as Spanish history—at all events in its earlier stages—is honeycombed with legends supported by the skilful forgeries of men like Ramón de la Higuera, and the mere narration of the very complicated series of events in the different kingdoms is in itself a severe test of any writer's skill. In his second volume Sr. Altamira not only reviews the external and internal political history of Spain from 1252 to the reign of the Catholic kings, but he ranges over the entire field of social, industrial and literary development. He writes with admirable lucidity, with an exactness almost German in its severity, and supplies a satisfactory answer to almost every question that can be fairly put to him. Moreover, he has what so few of his countrymen possess or even desire to possess—the gift of impartiality. Whether he speaks of Jews or Mudéjares, he invariably holds the balance even and, from the important paragraphs devoted to the foundation and functions of the Inquisition, it would be difficult to conjecture to which side the author's personal sympathies incline. But Sr. Altamira is far from being one of those historians who aim at showing that white is not so very white, nor black so very black. He has views and opinions of his own, as may be gathered from his brilliant summary of the achievements of Columbus and Las Casas respectively. But here, as elsewhere, his presentation of the facts is at once moderate and able in a very rare degree. We can only hope that his third volume may speedily

appear, and that an English version of the whole may be forthcoming: for, with the exception of Major Hume's excellent studies, most existing works on Spanish political history are distinctly discreditable to English scholarship.

Estudios de Historia Literaria de España. Por D. Emilio Cotarelo y Mori. Madrid: Imprenta de la Revista Española. 1901. 6 Ptas.

This miscellaneous collection of essays connected with the literary history of Spain deals with subjects as diverse as the "pasos" of Lope de Rueda and the plays of the modern dramatist Tamayo y Baus, and there is hardly a page from which even experts will not gather new facts. Sr. Cotarelo's mastery of minute detail is seen to special advantage in the scholarly study which he dedicates to the "Libro de Querellas", a work often attributed to Alfonso the Learned on the authority of Amador de los Ríos. It has long been obvious to everyone really acquainted with Spanish literature that the copies of verses supposed to be Alfonso's work must have been written at least a century after the king's death, but the subject has not hitherto been examined with the attention it deserves. Sr. Cotarelo leaves not a vestige of excuse for any further doubt even among the most ignorant of those who have hitherto favoured the Alfonsine ascription. He shows that Alfonso could not have described Diego Pérez Sarmiento as his "cormano", for the excellent reason that no Sarmiento was in any way related to the king. If, as we are bound to suppose, Pérez Sarmiento ever held the post of Ambassador at Rome, it would be reasonable to suppose that we should find some trace of his appointment; but there is no sign of his existence in Salazar de Mendoza's "Origen de las Dignidades Seglares de Castilla y León", and in fact no Sarmiento appears in any history or chronicle before the time of Pedro the Cruel, nearly a century after Alfonso ascended the throne. This is decisive so far as concerns the lines supposed to be addressed to Sarmiento, and a still more famous copy of verses,—"Yo salí de la mi tierra"—likewise ascribed to Alfonso by many historians of Spanish literature, is here shown to be equally apocryphal. These lines are given first of all in certain supplementary chapters appended to the Spanish translation of Jiménez de Rada's Latin Chronicle, and, as Gonzalo de la Hinojosa, Bishop of Burgos, is known to be responsible for some of these addenda, the verses have been attributed to him by a few critics who found themselves compelled to reject the ascription to Alfonso. This position is, however, altogether untenable; for as Sr. Cotarelo points out, Hinojosa died in 1327, and no example of the metre is found before the fifteenth century. The conclusions drawn are that "Yo salí de la mi tierra" dates from about 1453-4, and may be the work of an anonymous scribe, who brought Jiménez de Rada's chronicle down to this period, while the verses to Sarmiento are simple forgeries by Pellicer, an expert in mystifications of all kinds. Sr. Cotarelo proves his case to the full in a study which shows his remarkable gift of destructive criticism at its best. His constructive ability is displayed in the paper on Juan del Encina which may still be read with profit even by those who are acquainted with Sr. Menéndez y Pelayo's chapter on Encina in the sixth volume of the "Antología"; for while the latter is mostly concerned with Encina as a lyrical poet, Sr. Cotarelo is chiefly occupied with Encina's productions for the stage—the eclogues which contain the germ of Calderón's autos and of the heriatric drama of the seventeenth century. Not less original and valuable is the essay on Lope de Rueda whose biography is reconstituted and plays analysed with uncommon skill. Tamayo y Baus scarcely deserves the minute examination which is here devoted to his works, but this is more a matter of opinion than of fact. Sr. Cotarelo's volume is in every way an important contribution which no scholar can afford to overlook.

Vórtices. Poetas. Emilio Bobadilla (Fray Candil). Cartaproyecto de José María Heredia. Madrid: Victoriano Suárez. 3 Ptas.

It is not every minor poet who would care to print the letter which prefaces this volume. In the politest terms M. Heredia states that he has read these verses with pleasure, and that he observes in them passages which are reminiscent of Heine, Théophile Gautier and Campoamor. As much might be said of most minor poets, but M. Heredia's dry remark is justified by the fact that Sr. Bobadilla imitates his predecessors with an amazing persistency. Sr. Bobadilla has travelled a good deal and, whether at Biarritz or Bogotá, at Naples or New York, at Panama or Pisa, he has never been able to withstand the temptation of dashing off rhymes which are dated with a scrupulous exactness likely to be appreciated by future critics engaged in studying the various stages of his literary evolution. And, much as he has travelled, he has read even more. Saint Mark is not too early for him, nor is M. de Porto-Riche too late: without the slightest warning, provocation, or appropriateness, he discharges a quotation from Shakespeare, André Chénier, Byron, Carducci, Verlaine, Amiel, Renan, Graf or D'Annunzio. Few men have a better verbal memory, and few men have excelled Sr. Bobadilla in desultory industry, but neither verbal memory nor industry will suffice to make a poet. Left to his own resources, Sr. Bobadilla alternates between

(Continued on page 408.)

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insincere rhetoric and dreary commonplaces, where life is always "intensa" and the sea "inmensa". Frankly, Sr. Bobadilla has not the poetic gift:—

"Siempre trabajo y me desvelo
Por parecer que tengo de poeta
La gracia, que no quiso darme el cielo."

His latest volume is a fresh illustration of the disastrous influence exercised by France on Spanish-American writers, and is a disappointment to those who had formed a favourable idea of the real, if "robustious", talent shown by him in other fields. The probability now seems to be that Sr. Bobadilla will continue to mock his friends' hopes to the end. As a critic, he has already lost one budding reputation in his encounters with Clarín: such performances as the present will not help him to gain another, and we can scarcely wonder that he finds no place in Spanish literature. He is, in every sense, a foreign intruder.

Florilegio de Poesías Castellanas del Siglo XIX. Con Introducción y Notas Biográficas y Críticas por Juan Valera. Tomo I. Madrid: Fernando Fé. 3 Ptas.

With the best will in the world, it is impossible for any outsider to keep abreast of the literary production of a country where more or less every educated man has issued a volume of verse, and accordingly Sr. Valera's idea of forming an anthology of the most representative poets of the nineteenth century is a singularly useful and happy one. In a collection of this kind it is always difficult to choose a starting-point which shall be above criticism, and it is sure to be remarked that Meléndez Valdés and the younger Moratín, though they continued to write long after the fall of Joseph Bonaparte, are essentially eighteenth-century poets. But Sr. Valera is the last man in the world to administer the law in a pedantic spirit, and those who now read "Rosana en los fuegos" and the lines to Claudio for the first time will not be disposed to carp at his generous interpretation of the letter. Nor will they fail to appreciate the discursive preface of over two hundred and fifty pages in which Sr. Valera reviews the poets of the last century. This is not precisely criticism of the doctrinaire type, for the writer is nothing if not eclectic. It is rather a conversational statement of personal feelings and prepossessions, shot with an indulgent irony which is extremely effective—a statement informed with perfect knowledge and guided by an almost impeccable taste. Few Spaniards are prepared to take as kindly a view of Maury and of Mora as that set forth in these striking pages, but on both these writers Sr. Valera has much to say that is both new and true. The sketch of the struggle between classicism and romanticism, in which Martínez de la Rosa and the Duque de Rivas took a prominent part, is given with the vigour and accuracy which derive from first-hand observation, and unusual justice is done even to those "regional" poets whose names rarely find favour at Madrid. The work will extend to five volumes, and the concluding series of biographical notes will greatly add to the permanent value of a delightful work.

El Loaysa de El Celoso Extremeño. Estudio histórico-literario por Francisco Rodríguez Marín. Sevilla: Francisco de P. Díaz. 7 Ptas.

The name of Alonso Álvarez de Soria is best known as that of a disreputable writer who anticipated Cervantes in the invention of the sorry versos de cabo roto which precede "Don Quixote", but it has hitherto been doubtful whether Cervantes had any personal acquaintance with the famous picaresque whose example he followed. But, if Sr. Rodríguez Marín be right, there can no longer be any hesitation in answering the question affirmatively: for, his thesis is that Álvarez de Soria was the model used by Cervantes in constructing one of the chief characters in "El Celoso Extremeño", and the argument is presented with extreme ingenuity, though perhaps Sr. Rodríguez Marín insists a little too vehemently on maintaining the reading "asestó" which Rosell rejected in favour of "acertó". It seems inadvisable to place the problem on so narrow a basis, and we are more impressed by the many points of resemblance between Álvarez de Soria and the hero of Cervantes's story which was almost certainly written in 1604-5 shortly after Álvarez de Soria's execution. But, quite apart from the merits of its thesis, Sr. Rodríguez Marín's book contains an admirable picture of picaresque life in Seville during the sixteenth century. He traces the history of the early picaresques, gives the professional life of Chiquiznaque and Maniferro, of Rinconete and Cortadillo as pictured in unpublished contemporary documents, and in fact reconstitutes the vanished society of "Babilonia" in a way that no writer has hitherto approached. Henceforward every student of the Spanish picaresque novel must take Sr. Rodríguez Marín's very brilliant and learned work as his guide through the labyrinth of the Triana. In this respect there is nothing that can be compared with it for a moment, and its very discursiveness is made attractive by the artful archaism of a style in agreeable contrast to the hybrid gallicisms with which so many modern Spanish books teem.

For This Week's Books see page 410.

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THE NUNDYDROOG COMPANY.

"An April Year" and a Strong Financial Position.

THE ninth ordinary general meeting of the Nundydroog Company, Limited, was held at the Cannon Street Hotel, E.C., on Monday, under the presidency of Captain William Bell McTaggart (the Chairman of the Company).

The Secretary (Mr. Richard Garland) having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the directors' report and accounts, said the balance-sheet, if carefully inspected, even from an accountant's point of view, showed the Company to be in a very satisfactory and strong financial position. The real meaning of the balance-sheet was that after meeting all liabilities and paying the two dividends set forth in the accounts, as well as the balance dividend declared the other day, the Company was now in possession of cash assets over and above its liabilities amounting to something like £19,000. Referring to two other features of the report he said: "The first is the transmission of electric power from Cauvery Falls. This is a matter which was fully explained last year, and I think everyone will give the Mysore Government great credit for its determination to consider so large and important a matter in the pioneer work as so long a transmission of electricity; in fact, it is the greatest in the world. We told you that their engineers estimated that probably by about May the plant would be in working order; but this year not only have we to give them credit for the inception of this great work, but for their earnestness of purpose in the way in which the works are being carried out. We understand that the works will be available for utilisation at the mines in the latter part of July, and perhaps in June, thereby coming up to their estimated time in a very remarkable manner, and in a manner which I think reflects the greatest credit not only on the Mysore Government, but on their engineers who have carried the work out. Another important feature in the report, and a most important feature, is the announcement of the fact that the leases have now been renewed for a period of thirty years—thirty years after the expiration of the present leases, which expire in 1910; therefore we have now a certain tenure of thirty-eight years to run before any question of further renewals will come up. As you know, this is a matter that has dragged on for some years in a manner which has not been satisfactory to your directors nor, doubtless, to yourselves, although there was, of course, still a large margin of time in which to arrange matters. But several things happened. The old Dewan (Sir Sheshadri Iyer) became ill, and retired from his position, and he eventually died. Lord Curzon at that time succeeded to the Governor-Generalship of India, and Colonel Robertson became Her Majesty's Resident in the Mysore State. With Lord Curzon's activity and energy, at a very early date in his viceregal career he visited this goldfield, and he expressed the highest interest in all he saw there, and said he would be only too glad to forward the future welfare of

the industry, both from the point of view of the natives and of English shareholders. The new Dewan, as a younger man, naturally we thought would be anxious to signalise the commencement of his tenure of office by closing up such a very important question as that relating to the leases, one which, if he settled satisfactorily to his own Government and also to us, would certainly be a great feather in his cap. We appointed a small commission, consisting of the Hon. Mark Napier, who is not only a director of the Mysore and other companies in this field, but who, as the son of a former viceroy, and one of the most popular viceroys that India ever had, we felt sure would be a persona grata not only to the Rajah, but to Lord Curzon and Mr. Arthur Taylor, whom we have the satisfaction of welcoming as the new partner in the firm of Messrs. John Taylor and Sons. These gentlemen proceeded to India, and were received with enthusiasm, I may say, by the Dewan and the Rajah, and with the greatest kindness and courtesy by Colonel Robertson (the Resident at the Mysore State). Lord Curzon also, I may say, took a benevolent and intelligent interest in all their doings, and the result of that mission has, I think, far surpassed all our expectations. This most satisfactory settlement was commenced and carried through within a period of something like three weeks, after hanging on for a period extending to seven or eight years; and, I think, not only are our thanks due to all those gentlemen who were interested in it, but every one of them deserves the greatest credit for the final and quick solution of this important question. The terms, as you know, are the same as we now pay, with the small addition of a sum equal to 2½ per cent. on all dividends distributed. I would point out that the wording there is exceedingly important: 2½ per cent. on dividends distributed to you, and not on all profits made—and there there is a great difference, the great difference being that when once you raise a question as to what are profits there is no end to Government interference. For instance, we are carrying forward a balance of £5,600; that, no doubt, is a profit, and would be subject to tax but for the words employed—"only on dividends distributed to you." It is the same with regard to the reserve fund; that is undoubtedly a profit; but owing to the fair and proper wording of this concession, all these intricate questions vanish, and the Government stand in the same position, practically, as the shareholders themselves, getting their profit only on what you receive." The past year had been "an April year"; they had had their little disappointments—their showers—and, on the other hand, they had had a far greater amount of sunshine. "Our disappointments have been that the lodes are narrower than we hoped for, and their richness did not continue, in some cases, as far as we should have liked to see. Still, it is a record year in regard to output—a record in gold—and your dividend is again increased over that of the year before. I know there was a little disappointment felt by some shareholders that the reserves of ore have been entrenched upon to the extent of 7,000 tons. Of course, we would rather it had not been so; but it is not altogether without its advantage. It is sometimes necessary to do such a thing. Reserves are meant to be utilised when they are wanted; otherwise there would be no sense in having them." They were entrenched upon in the whole year to the extent of 7,000 tons, leaving, however, the respectable total of some 42,900 tons. They had the satisfaction last year of sampling this reserve, and what they found was that it was a real reserve, containing gold, containing wealth which was nearly as readily realisable, when necessary, as their £6,000 cash reserve invested in Consols. It means that they had these 42,900 tons of reserves absolute and of undoubted value, accessible at any moment that they may want them. He then read a telegram from Mr. Richards, and took the opportunity of saying once more how highly they valued the services of Mr. Richards. He looked for increased returns, slightly better value of quartz, less expenses, and hoped once more an increased dividend for the year. It gave him great pleasure to move the adoption of the report and accounts.

Mr. John Taylor then explained the position of the mine, and said he felt very hopeful now that the further prosecution of their operations should before long lead to a generally improved condition of the property. He begged to second the resolution.

Mr. Kempson remarked that two years or so ago they experienced great difficulties with the water, and he would like to know if those difficulties had been overcome.

Mr. John Taylor stated that Mr. Arthur Taylor had just returned from the mine, and he gathered from him that Mr. Richards was in no way anxious about the water question. They had much more powerful machinery now, and there was no appearance of a further influx of water to do them any harm.

The Chairman said he had omitted to mention in his speech that the renewal of the leases was granted subject to the sanction of the supreme Government of India. This sanction had already been officially granted, so that the matter was now complete.

The motion was then put and carried unanimously.

Mr. Kempson moved a vote of thanks to the Chairman, directors, and managers of the Company, and said he was sure all the shareholders were gratified at hearing such a good account of the mine. Although things might have been better, he did not think they had any reason to grumble. They had received an increased dividend, and the latest information from the mine was, in his opinion, of a most satisfactory character.

Captain Bickford seconded the motion, which was unanimously passed.

The Chairman briefly acknowledged the compliment, and the proceedings terminated.

THE EXPLORATION COMPANY.

FUTURE POLICY OF THE BOARD.

THE ordinary annual general meeting of the Exploration Company, Limited, was held at Winchester House, Old Broad Street, E.C., Mr. R. T. Baylis (chairman and managing director) presiding.

The Manager and Secretary (Mr. J. H. M. Shaw) having read the notice convening the meeting and the auditors' report,

The Chairman said that with regard to the report the first thing which attracted attention in the opening paragraph was that the contingency fund of £181,416 7s. created last year to meet probable depreciation in the Company's assets proved quite inadequate for that purpose, for that sum, together with a further amount of £36,323 9s. taken from reserve, had been applied in writing off ascertained losses. Moreover, it had been found necessary to appropriate the balance of the reserve, amounting to £364,024 18s. 7d., in writing down their investments to satisfy what the board believed to be the further depreciation in the securities they held on December 31 last. The result of that was that the contingency fund of £181,416 7s. and the reserve of £400,348 7s. 7d. appearing in the last balance-sheet had been wiped out. In the face of that misfortune, however, he felt some satisfaction in being able to say that the capital of the Company remained intact. With regard to the investments of the Company, investments in real

estate in Johannesburg, standing at £128,494 12s., represented property well bought, and in view of the activity which must prevail in that city in the near future, should soon yield a satisfactory profit. Liquid realisable assets, £421,031 16s. 6d., included their holding in South African Gold shares, which already showed a considerable appreciation in value, as well as in the El Oro and Tomboy Mines, both of which were properties of proved intrinsic merit, and in other mining shares easily convertible into cash. Investments in businesses maturing, £287,646, were mainly composed of their holding in the Electric Traction Company of London and in debentures of Geneva Tramways, the former of which having completed its contracts would be liquidated in due course. Assets difficult of realisation, £76,164, consisted of investments in various mining and industrial securities and syndicates not saleable at the moment, but in many instances of considerable prospective value. Investments remaining in Paris Traction and Tramway Companies, £27,444, represented all that was left of their investment in those securities written down in many instances below present market values, and beyond the possibility of further loss. Concerning the causes which had contributed to the deplorable losses of the past year, his remarks must necessarily centre in Paris. Briefly summarising the position on January 1, 1901, their investments in the shares of the Compagnie Générale de Traction and its subsidiary tramway companies, but exclusive of the advances made to that company, amounted to £539,320. Of that sum shares and securities costing £308,645 had been realised, on which a loss of £233,732 had been sustained; and they had remaining shares standing at cost £230,675, written down in their present valuation to £27,444, showing a further estimated loss of £203,230, or in all a loss, ascertained and estimated, on the Company's investments in French Tramways of £436,962. That amount, together with a further sum of £144,801, which for absolute safety they had written off sundry mining, industrial, and other securities, accounted for the £581,764 represented in the last balance-sheet by the reserve and contingency funds. Owing to the drastic nature of the board's valuation some of the estimated loss might come back to the Company. With regard to the future, the Company started now with a capital of £1,250,000 intact. Their investments on which that capital rests were written down in many instances even beyond the limit of safety. They had assets at their disposal which furnished them with ample funds for immediate business, and, above all, they had not any liabilities that gave them one moment's anxiety. He thought he might, therefore, say they began the year 1902 under very favourable conditions. With respect to future policy, the board intended, subject to the shareholders' approval, and without excluding any business in particular, to confine themselves mainly to the purpose for which the Exploration Company was created—that was to say, to the purchase, exploration, and development of mines and mining properties and their allied industries. It was in that direction they thought the capital of the Company could be most profitably employed. It was the business which above all others the board understood, and of which he had personal and practical knowledge, and they had at their disposal all the machinery for carrying that policy and purpose into effect. In short, they intended to be what their name implied—an Exploration Company, to devote more time and money than they had done in the past to the development of mines in their initial stage, for it was in this direction that the largest profits accrued; and, at the same time, to establish and maintain a strong financial position, which would enable them to take substantial interests in any properties of proved intrinsic and productive value that may be submitted to them by their engineers and others. To those who were original shareholders in the Exploration Company, and who remembered its early history, he thought that policy would appeal with some force; and he thought all would agree with him, whether old or new shareholders, that their success in the future would be more assured if they reverted and confined themselves to the business in which the Company was so successful in past days. With regard to the changes which have taken place since the last meeting in the constitution of the board and in the general management of the Company, Mr. Mosenthal, as they were aware, resigned the chairmanship at the last meeting, and it was proposed that Mr. Stanhope should take his place. Mr. Stanhope, however, preferred to devote himself exclusively to their interests in Paris tramways, and in this capacity rendered the Company a service and displayed a power of organisation which they fully appreciated and desired to acknowledge. Subsequently, owing to other engagements, he resigned his seat on the board. Lord Farquhar had resigned owing to the duties imposed upon him as Master of the King's Household, and Mr. Lukach, who resigned as managing director last July, had, owing to other engagements, now resigned his seat on the board. On the other hand, they had to announce the election of Mr. Warburg, whom they have been very pleased to welcome as a colleague. And, lastly, he had to say that his colleagues had placed the executive management in his hands, in which he would receive the very able assistance of Mr. Shaw, whose promotion to the position of manager would, he was sure, commend itself to them as a very proper recognition of past services. The directors had further done him (Mr. Bayliss) the honour of electing him Chairman of the Company, and it would be a pleasure to him to act in this capacity if the appointment met with their approval. Being fully sensible of the grave responsibilities attaching to the position, it would be his persistent endeavour to discharge them to the best of his ability and with the advice and counsel of his colleagues, with the assistance of Mr. Shaw, and, above all, if he was fortified by the knowledge of their confidence, he was very hopeful that it might be within his power to render useful service to the Company. He moved "That the report of the directors, with audited statement of accounts and balance-sheet to 31 December, 1901, presented to this meeting, be, and the same are hereby, received, approved, and adopted."

Mr. Francis A. Lucas, M.P., seconded the motion, which, after some criticism of the conduct of the Company in the past from various shareholders, was adopted. A vote of thanks to the Chairman concluded the proceedings.

BECHUANALAND EXPLORATION.

THE ordinary general meeting of the Bechuanaland Exploration Company, Limited, was held on Wednesday at Winchester House, Old Broad Street, E.C., under the presidency of Lord Gifford, V.C. (the Chairman of the Company).

The Secretary (Mr. T. Donald) having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

The Chairman said that from the information given in the report he thought the shareholders would agree that the position of the Company was a satisfactory one. They had cash at bankers and on loan £39,168, against £63,738 last year, a decrease of £24,570. That was accounted for by the payment of the dividend and an increase in other assets. At the present time the cash and short loans against security amounted to over £100,000. The next item was debtors £21,128, as against £23,081, a decrease of £1,953. The exploring and mining plant stood at £2,673, as against £2,005 last year, an increase of £668, being chiefly y fo

live stock. The shares and interests in other companies and syndicates were taken into the books at or under cost prices, and amounted to £248,499, being an increase of £19,407 on last year's figures. During the year further interests had been acquired and various sales had been effected, with the result as shown in the profit and loss account. They still held an interest in a few West African undertakings, but their commitments there were limited. They had already made a fair profit out of West Africa. Included in the item of shares and interests was the cost of shares held in subsidiary companies, viz., the Matabele Proprietary, Alice Proprietary, and Northern Copper Company. As regards the Matabele Proprietary Mines, the town stands owned by that Company were in good positions in Bulawayo, and the farms were situated on gold belts. The value both of the town stands and farms ought materially to increase with an improvement in the mining industry of Rhodesia. That Company had also 595 mining claims in Rhodesia. A certain amount of development work had been done on several blocks of claims, but the attention of the Company during the year had been chiefly directed to the Camperdown and the Chimborazo. Having alluded in detail to the various interests of the Company and the bright prospects of their copper companies, the Chairman said that the last item on the balance-sheet represented the various interests held in farms, mining claims, town sites, &c., in Rhodesia and the Transvaal, costing, with expenditure thereon, £136,469. Last year the amount stood at £130,247, the increase being for six farms acquired and expenditure in connection with certain properties. The Company still retained the Mont d'Or Farm, which had proved to be a very remunerative investment. It stood at a cost of £400, and the revenue for the past year amounted to over £2,400. The board had not considered it advisable to undertake development of any of their own mining claims owing to the high cost of mining and, of course, having regard to their interest in other companies which were doing development work. The total assets, as shown in the balance-sheet, were £447,939. The liabilities, as shown on the debit side, viz., creditors, bills payable and unclaimed dividends, amounted to £8,536. Turning to the profit and loss account, the expenses in London and South Africa amounted to £14,890, which was an increase of nearly £600 in London and over £1,700 in South Africa. Considerably more business was done in London than in the previous year, and the expenses were naturally larger. As regarded South Africa, they would readily understand that the general expenditure had been heavier than usual for reasons which would be known to them. The net profit for the year was £21,242, and out of that a dividend of 5 per cent. had been paid. After adding the amount brought forward from the previous year there remained £39,403 of undistributed profits. That amount had since been increased, and the directors had pleasure in stating that they had decided to pay an interim dividend for the current year. Financially the position of the Company was certainly satisfactory—the available cash would shortly amount to about £250,000. He then moved the adoption of the report and the approval of the dividend.

The motion, seconded by Mr. Edmund Davis, was unanimously agreed to.

EASTMAN'S, LIMITED.

THE thirteenth ordinary general meeting of the shareholders of Eastman's, Limited, was held on Wednesday at the Cannon Street Hotel, Lord Greville (the Chairman of the Company) presiding.

Mr. J. J. Thomson (managing director) read the notice calling the meeting.

The Chairman, having read the auditors' certificate, said the statement of accounts for the year ended with December last showed that the net profit of the year's working was £79,810, to which had to be added a balance of £2,430 odd brought forward from the previous year. The directors, the Chairman continued, had been able to pay 16 per cent. of dividend to the Preference Shareholders in 1901, being the current 8 per cent. and 8 per cent. on account of arrears. This left 9 per cent. of arrears still to pay before the Ordinary Shareholders could participate in the profits. The property in New York, consisting of land, buildings, and general abattoir equipment, belonging to Eastmans Company of New York, had been sold. The amount realised was 930,000 dols., out of which the original mortgage of 400,000 dols. on the property of the American Company had been paid off; and out of the balance this Company had received £99,000 odd on account. This money enabled the Company to pay off the balance of debentures, amounting to £100,380, thus relieving the Company of an annual payment of £8,750 for debenture interest and sinking fund, and thereby bringing the ordinary shareholders nearer to a dividend. If the Company did as well in 1902 as they did in 1901, the ordinary shareholders will have some chance of a dividend in 1903. So far the Company had this year done as well as during the same period in 1901, notwithstanding the fact that American beef was considerably dearer. The Company had now 900 retail shops in the United Kingdom, and cold storage for 300,000 carcasses of frozen mutton in various parts of the country. The Company's sales of all kinds of fresh meat during the year amounted to £2,400,000. They had no difficulty in buying all their requirements during the year in the English market. The imports of fresh beef and mutton continued to increase year by year, those for 1901 being the highest on record, namely, about 4,500,000 cwt. of beef and 7,100,000 carcasses of mutton. The imports of live cattle and sheep were decreasing year by year, while the imports of dead meat were increasing. In 1901 494,000 cattle and 381,000 sheep were imported alive. The stock of cattle and sheep in the United Kingdom kept very steady at about 11½ million cattle and 31 million sheep. England had to depend more and more every year on foreign supplies of all kinds of food. He referred in detail to the various items in the balance-sheet, and added that all the Company's retail shops, cold stores, and general equipment have been kept in a state of efficiency out of revenue. He concluded by moving the adoption of the report with statement of accounts.

The motion was seconded by Mr. Richard Hall, one of the directors, and was agreed to unanimously, without discussion.

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